THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

SEPTEMBER 15, 1923

The Anthracite Paradox

Robert W. Bruère

Gertrude and Gus

Eleanor Rowland Wembridge

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COAL, in this number, is necessarily an unfinished story (p. 610), though as we go to press the negotiations at Harrisburg are virtually completed. Mr. Bruère tells the story with the authority of a dozen years of study of the anthracite riddle and with fresh insight gained at the Harrisburg conference, to which he was called by Governor Pinchot as one of the group of expert advisers.

WHEN the debaters from Oxford University who met a number of university teams here last winter went home again, one of their number, Kenneth Lindsay, stayed behind to study workers' education in this country for the Workers' Education Bureau. He found most interesting, of all the enterprises he saw, the threefold work in Denver which he has described on p. 632.

A GOOD FRIEND of Russians, Greeks, and men of many other races in New York is Thomas L. Cotton of the 23rd Street Y. M. C. A., who has built up friendly relationships between the Association and numerous foreign-born groups (p. 621).

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THE NEGRO'S health problem is discouraging enough, in all conscience, as Mary Ross, assistant to Dr. Emerson as health editor of The Survey, points out on p. 617. But there is good reason to believe that not Providence, but a too backward effort to promote Negro health, is to be blamed for the present hazards which the Negro faces. In [illegible] number Dr. Roscoe C. Brown of the federal Public Health Service, himself a Negro and a leader in the fight of his race for health, will outline a constructive program which may bring the Negro abreast of the white in health education and promotion.

MRS. WEMBRIDGE'S vivid sketches of the girls she knows through her work as psychologist for the Cleveland Women's Protective Association are already a familiar part of the Survey picture (p. 613).

SALVAGED FAMILIES (p. 619), by the health editor of The Survey, is based on a paper which he presented at the annual meeting of the National Tuberculosis Association at Santa Barbara, California, on June 21, 1923.

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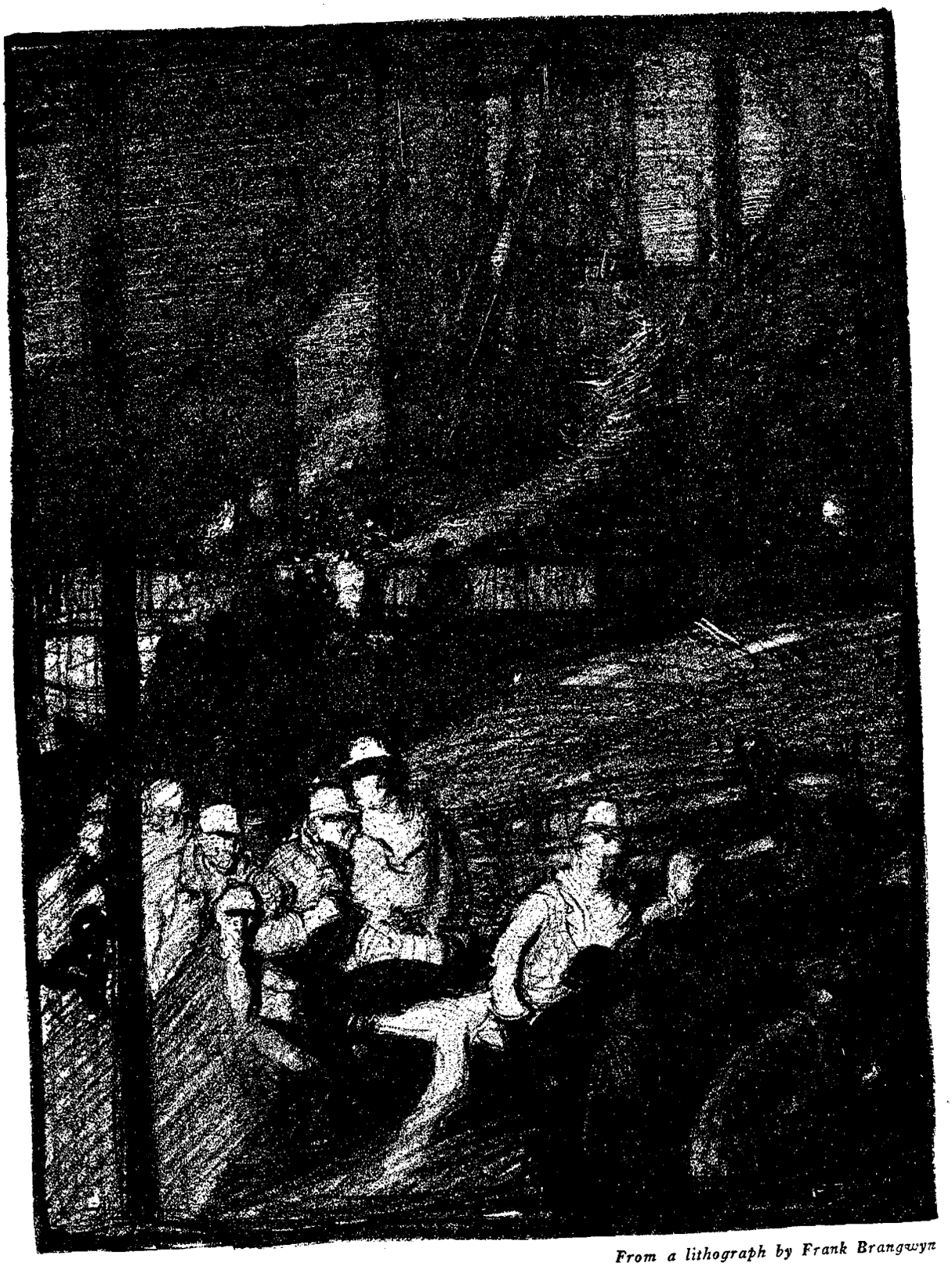

From a lithograph by Frank Brangwyn

ANTHRACITE: AN UNSOLVED RIDDLE

"A private industry in which the public interest is paramount"—page 610

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

September 15
1923

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The Common Welfare

YOU MAY JUDGE the degree of civilization which a community has reached by the things it chooses to boast about. Shelby, Montana, boasted that it could run a prize-fight. Georgetown, Texas, has other but not less revealing enthusiasms. Four weeks ago the Williamson County Sun, published there as the weekly journal of the banner cotton county of Texas, carried the following paragraph:

SIX-YEAR-OLD BOY IS COTTON PICKER

Wilmer Fletcher, son of Mr. and Mrs. W. T. Fletcher and only six years of age, has proven himself to be a splendid cotton picker, his best record having been made when he picked only a part of the day last week and gathered 110 pounds. The little fellow takes his honors as a matter of course and fails to see why his work should be considered out of the ordinary as "lots of folks pick more." He fails to get the viewpoint that his work is really wonderful for a child of his years. It is his spirit that caused the poet to write:

"I met a little Elf-man, once,
Down where the lilies blow.
I asked him why he was so small,
And why he didn't grow.
He slightly frowned, and with his eye
He looked me thru and thru,
'I'm quite as big for me,' said he,
'As you are big for you.' "

GOVERNOR SMITH of New York has several times distinguished himself by a frontal attack on one of those problems ordinarily lumped together by the practical politician under the contemptuous term "welfare work." The hospital for soldiers and sailors needing mental care, described on page 626, is the fruit of one such attack. Another is the newly organized state commission on housing and regional planning, of which Clarence S. Stein is chairman. Its primary purpose is to report by January 1 whether a sufficient housing emergency still exists to justify the continuance of the rent and tax exemption laws with which the state has sought to protect tenants and promote building during the period of extreme shortage. But it is to be a permanent body, and will continue to study not only the supply and quality of housing throughout the state, but also city or regional planning. It is something of a novelty here for the problems of orderly community growth to be approached from the human and intimate premise of housing needs. More often such enterprises have sprung from an aspiration for a "city beautiful," or from an unbearable transportation situation, or from the self-interest of business men who wished to protect their holdings. The personnel of the commission, which includes, beside the usual state officials most nearly concerned, the industrial commissioner, a labor-union officer, and the comptroller of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company—already a significant factor in city housing—gives promise that its work will be genuinely useful.

WEST VIRGINIA has had for several years its orthodox patriotic society, the American Constitutional Association, founded under gubernatorial patronage and maintaining headquarters at the state capital "to preserve reverence for law." Meanwhile Logan County, not fifty miles away, has become notorious throughout the country for its debauchery of law, and the murders on the courthouse steps at Welch are after two years still unpunished. The test meeting held by the American Civil Liberties Union at Logan (see The Survey, April 15, 1923) and the grim report recently rendered by the civil liberties committee to the federal Coal Commission, have directed the flickering attention of the outside public to the lawlessness of the southern counties. But that public soon forgets. A new organization, the Defenders of West Virginia, now proposes to unite the law-abiding citizens of the state in the determination to fight the issue through. It talks less about revering the law in general and more about enforcing the federal constitution and reviving the state bill of rights. Behind it stand not only avowed friends of the miners but prominent members of the Knights of Pythias (prevented by

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Sheriff Don Chafin or his deputies from holding a public meeting in Logan some months ago), leading Masons, several state legislators and congressmen, and, unofficially, the attorney-general of the state. Native citizens, including "Mother" Haberfield, who is famous for talking back to Logan deputies, are leading in this new effort to make it possible once more for West Virginians to be proud of their state.

Contact!

For nation shall rise against nation, and kingdom against kingdom; and there shall be famines, and pestilences, and earthquakes, in divers places.

NOT in the memory of men now living, nor of their father's fathers, has a decade been so full of disasters that try the temper of civilization itself as the decade that draws to a close this year. It was not enough for the world to live through the most devastating war of history; for China and Russia to watch thousands upon thousands die of hunger; for typhus to rage through the Slav nations till it burned itself out; for Asia to fling its Christian refugees onto the barren shores of Greece. The earth heaved, and hundreds of thousands lie dead or wander hungry and homeless in Japan.

Perhaps it is true that under these successive blows the quick sympathies of Americans have been dulled. Perhaps we have begun to tire emotionally of shouldering every few months a fresh burden of misery. But these repeated challenges have at least developed a technique of ready aid and a brilliancy of prompt response that have never been more strikingly displayed than by the crisis of the first of September.

The day after the earthquake President Coolidge cabled an official tender of assistance. The admiral in command in the Pacific was ordered to throw his entire fleet into the service of relief. Wood in the Philippines was instructed to hold his surplus stocks in readiness to be hurried to Japan. The American Red Cross called upon its chapters in the Philippines and China to report on their readiness to take speedy action.

Three days after the earthquake twenty-two American warships were on their way to Japanese ports or to stations where they could share in hurrying food cargoes into Japan. Every merchantman controlled by the Shipping Board in the Pacific had been put at the admiral's disposal. The Red Cross had made its initial appropriations and had issued its call for five million dollars.

Four days after the earthquake the Red Cross had taken over the purchasing and shipping facilities of the American Relief Administration, no longer busy in Russia. New York City had already raised half its quota of a million dollars. An American destroyer reached Kobe, the first vessel to come to the aid of the refugees.

Profiting perhaps by the slight interval of fumbling which preceded the organization of relief for the Smyrna refugees, the Red Cross seems to have acted with that promptness and precision which Americans expect of their national agency in the face of disaster. It was fortunate in the immediate recognition of its responsibility; in the presence at Washington of two former chairmen of its Japan chapter, both of whom will return at once to aid in organizing relief; in the readiness of the far eastern chapters which were assiduously cultivated by the Insular and Foreign Division after the armistice. It is stirring to read in the cables, three days after the disaster, such messages as this from the Hawaiian chapter:

> Six doctors, 36 American Red Cross nurses, 10 experienced relief workers and the necessary medical supplies are now available. Relief funds are already coming in.

A few years ago Americans were shuddering over the yellow peril. The next war was to be with Japan. She had quietly aggrandized herself by skilful participation in the war, while Europe went to the dogs. The four-power treaty put a stop to most of the war-talk. The earthquake has shockingly altered Japan's favorable position. Whether she is crippled by the blow for a decade, as some observers declare, or is able to recover with that elasticity of which San Francisco is the classic example, the help now being poured across the sea will tend to solve the problems of the Pacific. When San Francisco burned, the Japanese Red Cross sent $100,000 to its aid. That gift has literally become bread upon the waters for the survivors of Tokio and Yokohama.

Protectors of Patriotism

UNDER distinguished auspices, the National Civic Federation announces the organization of a department on current economic and political movements. Recognizing "the growing confusion in the public mind resulting from erroneous information upon economic and political subjects" the federation proposes to circulate correct information as to

1. Revolutionary movements;
2. Industrial relations;
3. Principles of representative government; and
4. Civics.

The reader is, of course, left free to surmise whether these topics are arranged with a view to climax or in the order of their importance as viewed by Mr. Easley and his associates of the federation. Since "free speech and free assembly" appears among the fundamental problems on which the department will advise the public, it is to be hoped that it will give wide circulation to the conditions under which public utterances in the streets of New York are permitted. The Right Reverend Paul Jones, lately a bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, was arrested during the "Law—not War" demonstration and fined five dollars for violating a municipal ordinance requiring not only that street speakers display the American flag, but that the flag so displayed be not less than three by four feet. Bishop Jones' flag did not succeed in measuring up to this test of patriotism.

No wonder the federation points out earnestly that, though "an adequate and well-organized defense" against communism is found today in the American labor movement,

> in other fields—certain religious and semi-religious organizations, educational institutions, philanthropic and social agencies and so forth—there is no such vigorous defense. On the contrary, the defenses are all down largely because in those fields there is little recognition of this danger by the rank and file despite the fact that the detailed program to capture these self-same movements, as worked out in Moscow with most uncanny cleverness, has been widely exposed in this country.

Fortunately misguided religionists, educators, and social workers are no longer defenseless against the "uncanny cleverness" of Moscow. The National Civic Federation will keep them safe and sound.

While Mr. Easley comes to the rescue of these especially

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misguided classes, the general public is not to be left without instruction. The Citizenship Committee of the American Bar Association has appointed the week of September 16-22 as Constitution Week. In the suggested sequence of events from preaching on Sunday to pageant on Saturday we come across this golden verse for Tuesday (we quote from the official publicity statement):

> The American has every reason to believe that his fundamental law contains inherently what the Scriptures call "the power of an endless life."

This use of scripture, we submit, is nearly the last word in finesse. Had the publicity representative carelessly printed the whole verse from which he quotes, he would have had an embarrassing contrast on his hands:

> Who is made not after *the law of a carnal commandment*, but after the power of an endless life."

If he had used his carefully-chosen sentiment on Sunday instead of Tuesday, some seditious preacher would surely have read from the pulpit the next four verses and would have come to this:

> For the law made nothing perfect, but the bringing in of a better hope did.

Even as it is, it is sadly to be feared that some hollow patriot will turn to II Corinthians 3:6 and remind the Citizenship Committee that "the letter killeth, but the spirit giveth life."

A Fresh Blow for Conciliation

IT is significant that the anthracite strike has not revived discussion of the Canadian Industrial Disputes Act which owes its existence to coal strikes in Canada and whose principle of compulsory investigation found such great favor with President Wilson. The prestige of the act was seriously damaged by the success of the Canadian miners in ignoring it with impunity. Survey readers may recall Mr. Selekman's thorough analysis of the first nine years' record of the act in our issue for March 31, 1917, in which he showed how completely it had failed to prevent strikes in the coal industry. Last month it received what may turn out to be a mortal blow from a fresh quarter.

The electrical workers have been dissatisfied with their treatment at the hands of the Toronto Hydro-Electric Commission, which operates the municipally owned electric light and power system. They successfully appealed to the Minister of Labor for a board of conciliation and investigation as provided by the act. The Toronto Hydro Commission turned to the court which granted a temporary injunction on the ground, as reported in the press, that the Industrial Disputes Act is "ultra vires of the Dominion Parliament." The act has been on the statute books since 1907. Its constitutionality has never before been challenged. The Minister of Labor has announced that he will take an appeal on the issue.

If the judgment of the lower court is sustained, the famous act which has been so ardently championed in the United States by men like Charles W. Eliot and so passionately denounced by Samuel Gompers and the American Federation of Labor, will to all practical effect become a dead letter.

The fact that it is being assailed by a governmental body may explain why the discussion of its merits has not been revived in connection with the anthracite strike.

International Casework

IN THE FACE of the general decline in American interest in European reconstruction, and the need which Mr. Lasker pointed out in these pages a month ago for a rebirth of American service overseas on a new and more intelligent basis, it is encouraging to recognize the progress which is being made in one field of effort—a minor one by comparison with the turmoil of Europe, but one of especial significance to Americans. We refer to the care of refugees and particularly of emigrants on their way through Europe from the countries they have determined to leave to the country which it becomes increasingly difficult to enter. Their bewilderment, their poverty, the tangle of official regulation, the peril of private exploitation, all create a situation which calls for an ingenious technique and for the closest cooperation between workers of different nationality.

Among both Protestants and Jews this job of international casework is increasingly assuming a genuinely cooperative character. The Councils of Jewish Women and the Young Women's Christian Associations, representing constituencies in many countries with a common outlook, have both been able to draw on those constituencies for the support of programs with many features in common. And as it happens that their efforts have so far centered in different cities, there has grown up a wholesome and effective cooperation between them, so that the Jewish workers handle Protestant cases in correspondence with the Y. W. C. A., and vice versa.

Mrs. Harry Sternberger, executive secretary of the Council of Jewish Women in this country, writes very briefly of their work in a comment on Mr. Lasker's article:

> It will be interesting to your readers to learn that the Council of Jewish Women has carried its program of social welfare work into Europe on the very basis that you emphasize.
>
> In the cities of Riga, Rotterdam and Amsterdam, we have been successful in establishing organizations that are devoting themselves especially to the problem of refugee. In Riga, for example, an immigrant aid center has been opened and the work begun under the direction of our reconstruction unit has been carried on by the Riga Council of Jewish Women, who are applying our methods to their needs. To such an extent has the work of our reconstruction unit, in the brief period of two years, borne fruit that in October a social welfare conference is being called in Amsterdam by the Amsterdam Council of Jewish Women, established through the efforts of our unit and of our committee on reconstruction.
>
> Our recent Vienna conference brought together women of all parts of Europe for the purpose of urging them to exchange their experiences and methods for mutual benefit.

It was a realization of the maze of problems and hardships that beset the emigrant that led the World's Y. W. C. A. at their international conference in Switzerland in 1920 to take the first steps toward establishing a service which after three years of experimenting is emerging as a vigorously functioning organism. A committee formed in January 1921 has headquarters in London, where an international secretary is busily keeping the threads intact between the service bureaus which have grown up in France, Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, Belgium, Denmark, Constantinople, Greece, Canada and the United States. These bureaus are variously supported: American money has its part in some, American technique is felt throughout the service, but the organization has so many sturdy roots that its friends are already predicting its eventual development into a completely autonomous agency.

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The Anthracite Paradox

By Robert W. Bruère

"THIS IS NOT a private quarrel." So Governor Pinchot declared when after his failure to avert the anthracite suspension at the end of August he warned the anthracite operators and miners that the patience of the public was very near its end. There is every reason to believe that not only the millions of anthracite consumers but also the great majority throughout the country emphatically endorsed the governor's statement. In the minds of the people, the anthracite industry is undoubtedly clothed with that public interest which in the common law has traditionally been held as adequate ground for public intervention and control, As a matter of court record, however, and therefore in practical fact, the anthracite industry is as purely private as the shoe or cutlery or white goods industries. The helplessness of the United States Coal Commission, of the federal administration, and of the chief executive of Pennsylvania to prevent the suspension is clear evidence that the stubborn dispute between the anthracite operators and miners is, under the law, a private quarrel.

The anthracite strike went into effect at midnight of August 31. Next morning the leaders of the opposing industrial forces returned to their headquarters from Harrisburg where they had met the day before on call of Governor Pinchot. Out of deference to the governor and the public whom he represented with such convincing sincerity, they agreed to resume their negotiations through him on the following Wednesday. "Both committees," said the governor, "have suggested an adjournment for the purpose of more carefully considering the whole situation, including the four points of my recommendations. But since each committee will do so from the point-of-view of the interests of its own side, this seems to me like a good time for the people to consider their own interests also, and to make their will known through the fullest public discussion." As this is written at a time when the mines are closed, the men out and the outcome of negotiations uncertain, it is opportune to take advantage of this interim suggestion to look beyond these surface events.

The crux of the problem from the point-of-view of the public lies in the paradox that while the people *feel* that the anthracite industry is affected with a public interest, while the United States Coal Commission has explicitly recommended that it *ought* to be brought under public regulation, while Governor Pinchot declares that the public interest is paramount, "the fundamental fact in the anthracite coal problem" in the language of the Coal Commission, "is that heretofore these limited and exhaustible natural resources have been in absolute private possession of their legal owners, to be developed or withheld at will, to be leased for such royalties as could be exacted, to be transported and distributed at such rates and in such a manner as a double-headed railroad and coal combination might find most advantageous from the point-of-view of private profit, to be sold at such prices as could be maintained by the restriction of output and the elimination of independent competitors, through such means as the maintenance of freight rates burdensome except to those who, owning both mines and railroads, could afford to be indifferent as to whether their revenue came from the one source or the other."

If in view of the facts so stated the people are to give effective consideration to their interests, it is incumbent upon them at the outset to recognize that the primary responsibility for the situation so pictured rests upon them. For eighteen years, from the time of the Roosevelt Commission's award in 1903 almost through 1920, the anthracite industry was remarkable for the continuity of its operation and the dependability of its service. Millions of consumers permitted themselves to acquire the complaisant habit of dependence upon anthracite as if its supply were as secure as municipal water. Because of this heedless dependence upon a luxury fuel, they display a peculiar sense of grievance when the supply fails. They grow indignant with the anthracite operators and miners as though a strike or a lockout in this industry were a peculiarly heinous offence. They lose sight of the fact that with full public consent and in complete conformity with the laws and the constitution the anthracite owners and workers like all other men engaged in absolutely private enterprise recognize no binding obligation to keep their mines running under conditions which they regard as prejudicial to their own interests. The incongruity between public feeling and legal fact with respect to the public character of the anthracite industry regularly in times of fuel shortage leads the public to ignore its responsibility and to mete out injustice to men whose only sin is that they do business even as all other men do business.

One's impression of the anthracite operators, especially of their representatives in labor negotiations, is that of men of peculiar force and ability. They belong to the classic American school of business men who overthrew the pretensions of the old world feudal aristocracy and in the process themselves acquired certain of those pretensions. For them there was a certain ritualistic validity in the famous pronouncement of George F. Baer, president of the Philadelphia and Reading Coal Company, when in opposing John Mitchell, Roosevelt's "gentleman," he declared that the "rights and interests of the laboring man will be protected and cared for, not by the labor agitators, but by the Christian men to whom God has given control of the property interests of the country." In spite of the fact that under Roosevelt's big stick they yielded the right to organize, they did not then nor for seventeen years afterward recognize the United Mine Workers of America as party to the labor contract. Full recognition of the union, as the union interprets the phrase, has been a major issue in this year's negotiations. One who feels their pulse in

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such situations as the recent conferences in Harrisburg gets the very distinct impression that they still sincerely hold the conviction that the rights and interests both of the workers and the public are safest in their hands.

Other considerations have more conscious weight with the younger generation of operators. From the point of view of both technical and financial organization they regard their industry as in a distinctly higher category than the bituminous industry or indeed most other industries. The opening and equipping of an anthracite mine requires not only a greater initial investment and therefore a greater financial risk than the opening of a bituminous mine, but also more elaborate machinery and greater engineering skill. Anthracite operators properly regard themselves as highly trained specialists, masters of a professional technique not readily susceptible to mastery. Moreover as the directors of a practical monopoly requiring large investment and built upon a luxury demand, they have traditionally been in closer alliance with the great investment bankers than their neighbors in the bituminous fields. They naturally think of themselves as members of the industrial aristocracy, duly aware of the obligations of the aristocrat to his employees and clients. At the hazard of great fortunes the anthracite operators devoted decades of arduous labor to establishing a secure market for their peculiar commodity and in the process, partly to be sure under pressure from the miners, but largely out of their own sense of *noblesse oblige,* they have raised the conditions of living in most anthracite towns to a level much above that prevalent in the coal fields as a whole. It is noteworthy that recent anthracite strikes have been "peaceful" strikes. This is due largely to the character of the anthracite miners, but it is also due to the fact that the anthracite operators have not resorted to the use of gunmen, detectives and professional strike breakers after the manner of the operators in certain parts of southern Pennsylvania and West Virginia.

In view of all these circumstances, in view especially of the fact that their legal status as private business men is absolute, the anthracite operators naturally feel aggrieved when they are singled out as exploiters of the public. What other private business is subjected to similarly denunciatory criticism? Why under the prevailing business code should their right to all that the law of supply and demand can be made to yield be challenged?

The anthracite miners, like the anthracite operators, are peculiarly sensitive to public criticism. Of them, too, it can fairly be said that they are in a distinctive sense of the aristocracy of labor. Only men of strong moral and physical fibre would elect anthracite mining as a permanent means of livelihood. Their occupation is peculiarly hazardous. Among some one hundred and fifty thousand men, by no means all of whom work underground, more than five hundred are killed each year and more than twenty thousand are injured. The deftest of the contract miners, the men who are paid by the yard or the ton for the coal or rock they blast out, get high wages as wages go. But these high wage men go down into the mines with dynamite in their shirts and hand in hand with death. Their average wage is probably less than that of the organized men in the skilled building trades; the earnings of the best paid among them will probably not equal that of the most expert garment worker.

A distinguishing characteristic of the skilled miners is

Gov. Pinchot's Proposals
for Settling the Anthracite Strike

1. Recognition of the basic eight-hour day for all employes. If longer hours are necessary at certain times, or in certain occupations, the overtime to be paid for at the eight-hour rate.

2. A uniform increase of 10 per cent to all employes, this increase to take effect September 1.

3. Full recognition of the union by the operators, without the check-off, but with the right to have a union representative present when the men are paid. I do not regard the question of the open or closed shop as at issue in this controversy.

4. Complete recognition of the principle of collective bargaining.

I suggest as a means of avoiding or settling differences that if in the course of collective bargaining the Scale Committee of the miners and operators are unable to agree they shall select a man agreeable to both sides to attend and take part in their discussions, but without a vote, and not as umpire or referee. If they are still unable to agree, their differences shall be referred to the Conciliation Board, which shall be provided with whatever equipment is necessary for the rendering of prompt decisions.

The whole body of wage rates in the anthracite field is antiquated, haphazard, and honeycombed with inequality. It needs revision. I suggest that the Anthracite Conciliation Board be authorized by the Joint Wage Scale Committees to undertake and complete within a year a thorough revision, and for that purpose be supplied with the necessary help.

The proposed increase of 10 per cent in wages is recommended in view of the high degree of skill required among the miners, and the extra hazardous nature of the occupation. Five hundred workers are killed and twenty thousand are injured each year.

The 10 per cent wage increase, according to the best figures available to me, will add sixty cents a ton to the cost of domestic sizes of anthracite coal at the mine. Of this amount not less than ten cents can be and ought to be absorbed by the operators without any increase of price. In the last three months of 1922 and the first three months of 1923 their profits have been greater than ever before in their history. But the extent to which these producing conditions will continue no one can now predict with confidence.

The remaining fifty cents per ton should not in the end be taken from the consumer. The whole of it can easily and properly be taken out of the cost of transportation and distribution.

Anthracite mines vary in the cost of producing coal. A very considerable percentage of the mines could bear at least half of the probable increase of sixty cents per ton and still run at a fair profit. Others, operating a smaller margin, might be forced to close down if their cost of production were raised even by a much smaller amount. To decrease the margin at the mines more then ten cents per ton now might unduly reduce production. It is to the public interest that bins be filled for the winter and that factories continue to operate. When production is assured I intend to recommend constructive plans that will, I am confident, prevent any part of this increase of fifty cents a ton going to the consumer.

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their traditional consideration of the mine laborers and the lower ranks of craftsmen. From the beginning, the miners' union has been an industrial union. All men of whatever craft or grade of skill who work in and about the mines are eligible to membership. The tendency of their wage demands has been toward equalization. Although for eighteen years after they had won the right to organize their union was not accorded recognition, the dues-paying men supported their equal share of the machinery of conciliation set up by the Roosevelt Commission, in the interest of the non-members as well as of the members. It is for this reason that they now so strongly demand that all workers in the field who share the benefits of their sacrifice shall be required to join the union and share in its burdens as well as its advantages. The check-off is the method employed in the soft coal fields to make such membership obligatory.

During the war, when the working force was greatly reduced, they surpassed all records of total production. In contradistinction to many other organizations, of business men as well as of workers, they accepted wage increases notably less than they might have secured if they had disregarded considerations of patriotism. After the war, having yielded to President Wilson's demand for arbitration, they were accorded a far smaller increase than the more belligerent bituminous miners on the ironical ground that they had worked more steadily. They were accorded this in the face of the findings of the impartial expert retained by the arbitration commission who recommended a minimum of sixteen hundred dollars for the day men as against the less than twelve hundred dollars granted by the commission. What they are contending for to-day is a leveling up of their working conditions and of the recognized status of their union to the plane upon which the organized bituminous miners have stood for decades.

The peculiarity of the anthracite controversy as compared with other labor disputes in the producing industries lies neither in the demands of the miners nor in the opposition of the owners, but in the fact that the public does regard anthracite as partaking of the character of a public utility. It was in response to this public opinion that Congress created the Coal Commission. It was the business of the commission to dig out the facts of the industry and to familiarize the public with them. The most important single item entrusted to the commission was to discover the facts with respect to the legitimate investments of the owners as a measure of the reasonableness of prices and profits and the reasonableness of the miners' demands. Public opinion in so far as under the circumstances it might have brought enlightened and just pressure to bear, needed this group of facts as a fulcrum. The most striking fact to those who followed the negotiations in Harrisburg was that the commission was apparently not able to supply the governor with this crucial information; certainly if the facts were in hand they were not divulged to the public. To the visitor at Harrisburg, it was obvious that any recommendations the governor might make would have to be recommendations of expediency; that they could be effective at best in meeting a temporary crisis; that if the miners and operators accepted them as a basis of agreement, they would do so, not on the basis of principles having permanent validity, but as a way out of their pressing difficulties and in deference to the personality of the governor and his ability to imbue them with his own high sense of public duty. In accepting or rejecting his proposals, they leave the status of the industry as an absolutely private business unchanged.

And the probabilities are that public sentiment to the contrary notwithstanding it will remain unchanged so long as the present technical organization of the fuel and power industry continues. No one is more keenly aware of this likelihood than Governor Pinchot who has taken practical cognizance of it while the anthracite report of the United States Coal Commission totally ignored it. In the midst of his conferences with the anthracite representatives the governor announced his appointment of the members of the Giant Power Survey Board created by act of the last state legislature to conduct an outline survey of the energy re-

A Settlement — and a Solution

AS we go to press Governor Pinchot announces that the miners and operators have accepted his recommendation as the basis of a new contract.

The important thing for the consumer to remember is that in the nature of the anthracite situation this settlement is not a permanent solution for the domestic fuel problem. When the present contract expires the menace of a lockout or strike will recur. Moreover, it seems certain that the price of anthracite, which already bears heavily upon millions of households, will go higher than ever before. Our methods of domestic heating, especially our dependence upon anthracite, are archaic and technically practically unnecessary. Even if cities and states should buy their own mines and develop their own distributing system, as a few Western states have done, this archaic situation would not be cured. The real promise of substantial advance towards the modernization of our fuel and power system lies in Governor Pinchot's giant power program.

The Pennsylvania legislature at the session held during the spring of 1923 made an appropriation for a Giant Power Survey which in the words of the act is to study:

> the water and fuel resources available for Pennsylvania and the most practicable means for their full utilization for power development and other related uses; to recommend such policy with respect to the generation and distribution of electric energy as will secure for the industries, railroads, farms and homes of the Commonwealth an abundant and cheap supply of electric current for industrial, transportation, agricultural and domestic use; the practicability of the establishment of giant power plants for the generation of electricity by fuel power near coal mines; the saving and the utilization of the by-products of coal; the transmission and distribution of electric energy throughout the Commonwealth; the electrification of railroads; the generation of electrical energy by water-power; and the coordination of water power and fuel power development with the regulation of rivers by storage for water supply, transportation, public health, recreation and other beneficial uses.

Morris Llewellyn Cooke, who was director of the public works in Philadelphia under Mayor Blankenburg and director of the Utilities Bureau, was put in executive charge of the survey as director at the first meeting of the board on August 29.

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sources of the state and the best methods of their utilization. The act contemplates the conversion of coal into electricity and gas at the mines, the high tension distribution of electricity from these giant power stations and the high pressure transmission of gas. Under a giant power system, said the governor, "distance is as unimportant and state lines as meaningless as in the pumping of oil from the Oklahoma fields to the Atlantic seaboard." Industries using wires or pipes for the transmission of fuel or power are recognized as public utilities, subject to full publicity of their investments, prices and profits, and subject to regulation in the public interest. In our common law from time immemorial it has been the quality of monopoly real or potential, as illustrated in transportation of light or power, that has constituted the basis for public regulation. We have been accustomed to speak of the anthracite monopoly as if anthracite coal were entirely distinct from coal in general, as if anthracite monopoly were coal monopoly. But courts have not so regarded it. To them coal is coal and will continue to be so until coal is converted into electricity and gas before it reaches the consumer.

At the crux of the present crisis, Governor Pinchot has advised the people to make it the occasion for considering their own interests. They will serve themselves most effectively by exploring the technical transformation of the fuel and power industry projected by Pennsylvania's Giant Power Survey.

This will not eliminate anthracite as a peculiarly efficient domestic fuel, but it will greatly modify the character of public dependence upon it. Throughout large areas centering at the mines, it should make manufactured gas available for heating. By electrifying the railroads and factory power plants, it will relieve the railroads of their bulkiest load and cheapen the costs of transportation. It will protect the public against the economic menace latent in the proposal that filthy soft coal should be used as a substitute for anthracite. By increasing the volume of commercially available electrical energy, it should greatly increase production and raise the general standard of living. If Governor Pinchot succeeds in tiding the miners, the operators, and the public over the present danger of a prolonged strike, he will deserve public gratitude. But in the long run his statesmanship in advancing the technical and social modernization of the entire fuel and power industry through his giant power program will be recognized as his greater contribution to the permanent solution of the coal problem.

Gertrude and Gus

By Eleanor Rowland Wembridge

ILLUSTRATIONS BY ESTHER ANDREWS

OF course the great trouble with Gertrude was that she didn't start right. Her father, at the first hint of her arrival, had run away as fast as he could, and while her mother could not do the same, it was not because she would not have been glad to. Although Gertrude was sixteen when we first met her, her mother was still blaming her for being born. "Gosh, that woman can't forget it," said Gertrude with disgust, "I don't suppose she *did* want me. But a kid can't help being born—as I see it." Which reflection seemed as just as was her further remark, "It seems to me it was as much her fault as mine."

However, Gertrude's mother absolutely refused to take any responsibility for her advent, and took no interest in her fortunes. Gertrude had been obliged to look out for herself, and it cannot be said that she had made a very good job of it. She told her story with that disarming frankness of a girl thrust out into a wicked world too young to develop the usual repressions of speech, from sheer lack of knowledge that any are necessary. Goodness, badness, marriage or the lack of it, this fellow or that, truancy from one school, and raids in another hotel—all made up one muddle of experiences and escapades, from which one standard alone apparently emerged. Gertrude had decided that she wanted a HOME. Her ideas of what a home might be were certainly not derived from any of the rooming houses occupied by herself or her friends, but she had, as it turned out, a romantic nature, and while other flappers went to the movies to thrill over the love scenes of their favorite stars, Gertrude found her inspiration in the kitchen and fireside scenes from The Old Homestead, Way Down East, and kindred dramas.

"I'd like a job where there was an old couple whose children were grown up, and who would sit around the lamp in the evening. I want to talk to the old lady and to call her mother, or grandma, or something." Gertrude was a romanticist and while she was talking about her old couple she really meant what she said. But she had, I hate to think how many, years of restless habits behind her, and she could not change them all at once. So, the next time we saw Gertrude, although a home had been found for her, interest in the old couple had waned, and interest in Gus was at its height. Gus was a fireman, which meant, of course, that he had a good pair of shoulders and a uniform. Such a combination is damaging to the peace of mind of any girl of sixteen, but to Gertrude it was fatal. A city employe, in uniform, who dashed through the streets on a red truck, and told tales of hairbreadth escapes from burning buildings, such was Gus, and he played his Othello to her Desdemona, pleased enough to have so breathless an audience. As for Gertrude, her head was completely turned, and her heart melted within her. We could not share her enthusiasm over Gus. Shoulders he undoubtedly had, but his face was like a weasel, and his eyes were shifty. However, it was apparent that Gertrude needed a home more than ever, and since Gus seemed, in his unmannerly fashion, willing to furnish it, there was nothing to do but to help them settle. Again Gertrude's china blue eyes gazed into ours with a frankness that seemed almost unearthly. "Gus always said that he would marry me if he had to, and now he has got to, and so he says he will." On this chivalrous basis, Gus and Gertrude went to the City Hall. There could be no church wedding, for Gus was a Catholic and Gertrude, for some reason, had decided that she was a Protestant. We could not discover why she thought so, until she said, cheerfully: "They say if you are Catholic you go to church, and I don't go, so I must be a Protestant—and I won't turn Catholic for any mutt."

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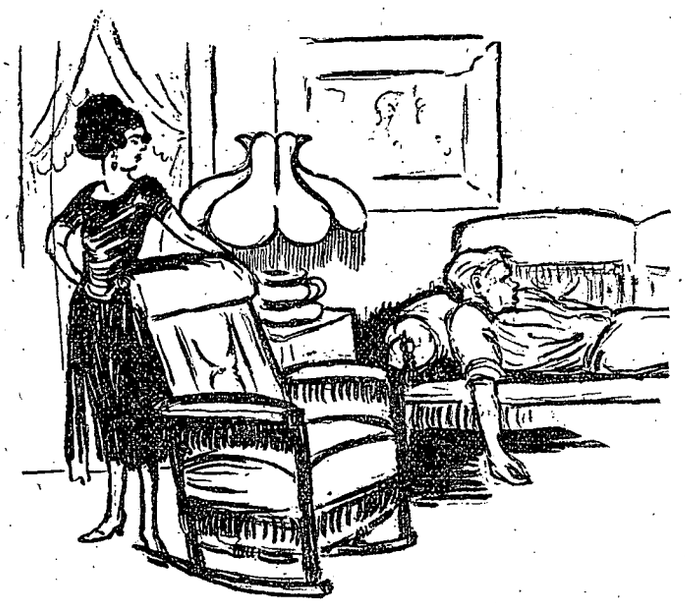
The theological question being thus settled, the ceremony was performed, and Gertrude trudged to their new flat full of hopes of having a home at last. It bothered us a good deal that both Gus and Gertrude had thought it necessary to stock the rooms quite so thoroughly with heavy stuffed furniture for which they were to pay $1,500, by instalments. Being absolutely dependent upon Gus's wages, which were not large, and with other inevitable expenses ahead, such very heavy rocking-chairs and such very large lamps seemed unnecessary in an apartment so small that one's shins continually knocked against their carved and tasseled trimmings.

But this particular style of furniture had adorned the vivid scene in Gertrude's imagination, and now that she had a chance to see herself against such a rich background she could not bring herself to start with less. After all she was only sixteen. So we tried to hope that their courage would last as long as the instalments must be paid, and that Gus would fit into the rosy dream even better than the big, shiny "buffett" fitted into the dining-room.

Soon after this Gus lost his job. He had, at Gertrude's urgent request, come home to keep her company one evening. She complained so much of being lonesome that her insistence, combined with his own desires, made him find a nap on the magenta sofa more comfortable than a chair at the firehouse. But awkwardly enough, there was a fire during his absence, so Gus wore his uniform no more but became an unpicturesque figure in overalls. Of course, this nettled him, and he was inclined to think it was Gertrude's fault. Gertrude was so accustomed, however, to having everything her fault, that she worried little about it. She had more important things to think of just then, for she, in the meantime, was trying to bring up her three weeks old baby on the hospital schedule—she who had never done anything on schedule time in her life. Naturally enough, one set of schedules was all that she could hold in mind at once. The furniture premiums were forgotten and the instalment man gave his ultimatum. Inside of six months Gertrude and Gus were in a still smaller flat, very sparsely furnished, and $300 out of pocket—a small sum, after all, to have paid for six months of varnish and upholstery.



Gus found a nap on the magenta sofa more comfortable than a chair at the firehouse

But a baby and domestic cares were far from enough to slake the thirst of Gertrude's romantic soul. Gus, whose temper had never been of the best, was finding the steady grind of loading box-cars much less to his taste than playing cards in the engine house with the other firemen. Moreover, a hot August with a fretful baby did not improve Gertrude's disposition, and she missed the trips to the merry-go-rounds and the ice-cream parlors with which her previous summers had been enlivened. So when Gus reminded Gertrude, as he often did, that his fallen fortunes were because of her, she, in turn, reminded him that she had had many lovers more wealthy than he, and could have them now if she so much as winked an eye or dropped a handkerchief. As a matter of fact Gertrude had done neither since her infatuation with her husband. Even six months of life with the grouchy Gus had not changed her love for him. But she had the theory, based on much meditation and consultation with her girl friends, that a husband with an attractive wife like herself should continue his love-making, and that he should with gifts and "shows" express his appreciation of his good luck in winning her. If he declined to do so, he must be made to by jealousy.

The dramatic device of forging letters to other people has often been made use of in fiction and on the stage, but Gertrude conceived the idea of forging one to herself. It was easy to see why this occurred to her, for her usual dramatic outlet had been recently suppressed. She had been a great patronizer of the circulating library which had a station in the local drug store. From its shelves she treated herself to volume after volume of the most sugary and impossible fiction, which she read until late at night, and aggravated Gus past endurance by her absorption in it, and her quotations from it. One evening she propped herself with pillows on the kitchen floor, to read her latest romance, meaning by this pose, one must conclude, to arouse curiosity in her husband when he came home and found her there. But she inadvertently fell asleep. And when Gus arrived very tired and hungry, there he found her, in the middle of the floor, all the lights ablaze, and too deep in slumber to notice either the arrival of her husband or the hungry protests of her baby from the next room.

This was too much. "Darned foolishness," snarled Gus, "Using the electricity reading a bunch of nonsense." So Gus prohibited the perusal of any more books whatever, and Gertrude, thus suddenly cut off from her principal joy, proceeded to write, if she might not read.

The first fruit of her pen was a most outrageous love letter from a mythical Charlie Cooms, which she left carelessly on the stove for Gus to find when he came in. Gus found it. The first we knew of this episode was Gertrude calling over the phone in the hysterical voice which she loved to use—"Take me somewhere. Gus is going to kill me if you don't."

When we next saw Gus (we did not hurry) he was still shaking with wrath, and thrust the letter into our hands. The letter would have been funny if its disconnected anti-climaxes had not thrown such a sad light on Gertrude's past. With a free hand to frame a lover to her own taste, she could construct nothing but a monstrosity. Charlie Cooms, if he had existed, would have been even more undesirable than Gus. But the handwriting was so plainly that of Gertrude herself, and her leaving it on the stove so obvious, that even Gus was convinced of its authorship.

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There he found her, too deep in slumber to notice the hungry protests of the baby from the next room

This conviction did not mend matters, however. If he was not now angry at her infidelity, he was even more enraged at her perverseness. A betrayed husband has some dignity; one who has been made ridiculous has none. Gus seemed to feel that his position as head of the house could be restored only by means of an application of his powerful fist. Gertrude said that he knocked her down, and we not only believed her, but we did not blame him. As Gus himself tersely remarked, "If she wanted to kid him, she could take what was coming to her." Poor Gertrude, it was not the first time that she had been knocked down, nor was it likely to be the last.

How any one could have the courage to deliberately bait the bear-like Gus, was more than we could see—but Gertrude was determined to play the heroine in her imaginative drama, and she was equally determined that Gus should play the hero. After all, she was barely seventeen, spending hot days and nights in a little flat with a heavy, fretful baby. The romance in her system was like a violent attack of the measles—it simply had to come out, or turn in and slay its victim.

The next form of the attack was boarders. In a revulsion of feeling against having been an undutiful wife, Gertrude determined to be wifely to a fault. She would help out the family budget by taking a girl friend and an elderly relative to board, and with the proceeds of the venture, she would herself refurnish the flat so bereft of the adornment with which they had started their married life.

In order to start off well with the boarders, it was necessary to begin the furnishing at once, as a kind of advance investment, and Gertrude found a hitherto unknown joy in shopping by correspondence. In their first venture, she and Gus had wandered through the shops buying what they saw. But Gertrude now discovered that no furniture in reality is half so dazzling as the description of it in the catalogue, and she was lost in the contemplation of "dressy dressers" and "classy davenports," as if she had not been caught once in the instalment mill. So, although she lived in a city with myriads of house-furnishing establishments, she placed a large order in a distant city noted for its "merchandizing by mail." With the rather commonplace articles which appeared in response to her orders, the two boarders and their hosts started out on a domestic experiment.

This was Gertrude's plan. The boarders would pay her and she would pay for the furniture. When the debt was off her hands she would buy presents for Gus and stylish clothes for the baby and herself. But everything went wrong from the very first. The elderly relative promptly lost his job, and could not pay his bill, and the girl friend, who was behind on the payments for her last winter's fur coat, asked for an extension of time. This shortage in cash naturally affected Gertrude, who in turn asked for an extension on her own bill. But while she had been most good-natured in her response to her boarders, the furniture dealer was far from good-natured to her. If the furniture was removed for the second time, the boarders would have to go too, for there would be no place for them to sleep, nor any dishes for them to eat from. Moreover, if they left now, they would never pay for their back board. Obviously, Gus, instead of getting presents, must pay for the luxury of his house guests. In the meantime, the elderly relative, having so much time on his hand, was using it to flirt with the girl friend, and, as if this were not enough, Gus himself, as a slight compensation for so much trouble and inconvenience, began to join in the flirtation. Gertrude, flushed and unhappy over her steaming dish-pan, would hear uproaring echoes from the next room where the two men were vying with each other to entertain the guest.

"Her owing me $35 on her board, Gus takes her to a movie and leaves me with the baby—the nerve of that!" sobbed Gertrude. The only solution to this tangle, which threatened to be not only a love triangle but a parallelogram, was to send back the furniture once more, evict the boarders, and start again, only a few more hundred dollars in debt than they were when they were married.

What next? Gertrude, having exhausted the dramatic possibilities of the wayward and the dutiful wife, selected as her next role that of the hysterical patient. She was seized with frequent attacks, which culminated in a particularly violent outburst of nerves outside of a movie theater.

The attack was brought on by an argument as to which parent should carry the baby. Both of them firmly and noisily declined to perform this office, until Gertrude, having by a ruse got young Warren Harding into his father's arms, left him there, and darting suddenly across the street, she

Past the fire engine house, where Gus's old pals watched the whole affair with great relish

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marched home with her nose in the air. It would not have been quite so bad if the way home had not been past the fire engine house where Gus had been formerly employed, and where his old pals, now seated at leisure in the doorway, were watching the whole affair with great relish. Gertrude refused to cast one glance at these, her one-time dancing partners, or to answer their greetings. She flounced past them, her high heels beating a quick tattoo on the pavement, her red cheeks blazing, and her long ear-rings waving in rhythm to her stride. Gus followed slowly, his face reddened not by rouge but by wrath, gripping the howling baby under one arm. He was too utterly enraged to do aught but glare helplessly at his former colleagues. And although some of them were family men and privately sympathetic, what could they do, under the circumstances, but extend cheerful inquiries for the health of himself and his family, and ask him now he enjoyed married life?

If looks could kill, many corpses would have lined the streets that day. Poor Gus! One could hardly blame him for wanting to shake Gertrude until, as he said "her teeth would rattle." Even Gertrude had misgivings, after this last episode, lest she had gone too far. She was obliged to think quickly. Gus would soon be at her heels and this time she was really afraid of him. She thought of the novels she had read, and agreed with Goldsmith, that "when lovely woman stoops to folly" there gets to be a point where "the only way to give repentance to her lover and wring his bosom—is to die." But even in the face of instant death, Gertrude did not forget her role of dramatic heroine. Again a note was hastily penned and placed upon the stove, and as Gus, full of wrath, opened the door, Gertrude faced him with a box in her hand. Before he had a chance to utter what she knew was coming, she pointed tragically to the note, swallowed the contents of the box, and fell screaming to the floor.

Poor Gus—again outwitted. He looked at the note which read as follows:

Dear Friends, I am going to commit suicide, as soon as I finish this note. Gus has ruined my life, I have nothing to live for.

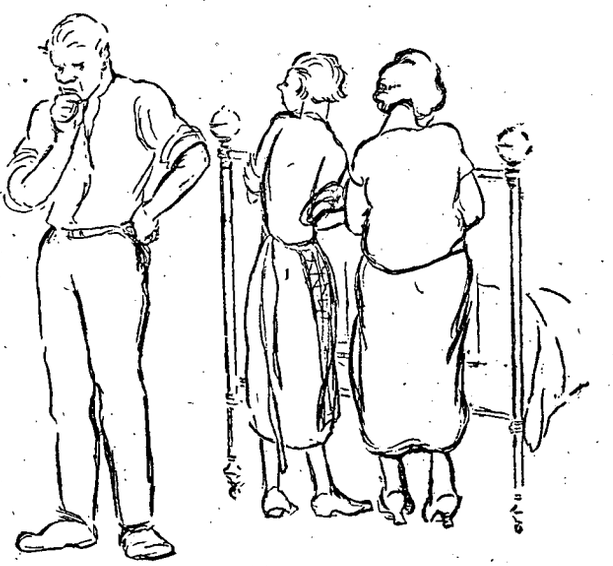
Sincerely, Gertrude.

P. S. I shall drink lie. Gus has given it to me. Goodbye, and love to all. Curses on Gus.

Scrawled up the margin of the note was an after-thought of maternal sentiment: "Please take care of baby"—for as Gertrude hastily recalled, no beautiful young mother dies without asking a cruel world to take care of her baby. The picture would not be complete without it.

Under the circumstances, there was, of course, nothing for Gus to do but to call in a neighbor and a doctor. The neighbor, at Gertrude's request, telephoned to us: "Come at once, Gertrude has just been murdered." When we arrived, the neighbor was administering such remedies as she found recommended by the cook-book, which the doctor later supplemented with a stomach pump. How much poison she really swallowed we never knew. But if the "lie" did not make her feel sick the stomach pump and the cook-book, between them, certainly did.

She pointed tragically to the note, swallowed the contents of the box—and fell screaming to the floor



Nothing fell to Gus's share but lifted elbows and averted shrugs

She and Gus were a very subdued couple when the affair was finally over, and Gertrude lay white and limp upon the bed. Nevertheless there was a flicker of triumph in her eye. The little drama had been a success. Gus had been put in the wrong, and her little world was there to witness his discomfiture. The women who had gathered from the adjacent flats took up their cues as if they had rehearsed them. There were many encouraging little pats given to the invalid, and much murmuring of "dearie" and "girlie," whereas nothing fell to Gus's share but lifted elbows and averted shrugs. There was nothing for him to do but to accept the role of the repentant husband, and to behave exactly as Gertrude had intended him to behave, when she staged the scene.

The next day, after it was all over, and we were wondering what to do next, came the following note, which seemed to relieve us of any immediate responsibility:

Dear Friends. Don't expect any news of me. Not while I live. If you had not raved like lunatics I would not have got so mad. I have had enough of you. In fact too much. I don't think my husband likes you any too well, and I want you to know that there aren't any things on earth I loathe as much as I loathe you. I am a good wife and mother, so stay away. I never want to see any of you again in my life.

P. S. I don't expect an answer.

So this was the next act! Gertrude's creative energy was enormous. She had evidently been planning the next instalment of her serial drama, before she had recovered from the effects of the last. And she had decided that not Gus, but we, should play the villain's part. If she has cast us for the villain's role we must play it, for no one can be a part of Gertrude's life without acting in her dramas. But, despite the trouble which she gives us, neither Gus, nor we, will ever desert her. And if we do not desert her it will be for the same reason. We all want to see what she will do next.

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HEALTH

The Health Hazards of Being a Negro

CAN THE NEGRO RACE survive in America? In all the northern and some southern states, and in the cities, North or South, Negro deaths outnumber Negro births. The last decade has witnessed a remarkable drift of Negroes from country to city, driven by ravages of the boll-weevil in the cotton fields, lured by the better educational advantages of the cities for their children, or the high wages which prevailed in northern cities when war and subsequent legislation cut off immigration and restricted the supply of unskilled labor, until now a third of the Negroes in this country live in urban communities, in which so far the race has been unable to maintain its numbers by natural increase.

In 1790 Negroes comprised almost a fifth of the population of the United States; in 1920 just under one-tenth. This relative decrease has been due to three factors; for about a century the growth of the Negro population has been derived almost entirely from natural increase, while the white population has been augmented by large numbers of immigrants; the Negro birth rate has declined much more rapidly than the white, showing a decrease of 17 per cent between 1910 and 1920, whereas the white decreased only 2½ per cent; and the Negro death rate in all age groups and from nearly every cause far outstrips that of whites.

At birth the average Negro boy looks forward to nine years less of life than a white boy, the Negro girl baby to twelve years less than her white neighbor. During the first year of life the death rate of Negro babies is nearly twice that of white babies. According to the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, tuberculosis kills eleven times as many colored boys between the ages of ten and fourteen as white boys, and about eight times as many young colored girls as whites. The general death rate of Negro groups in the United States amounts to half as much again as the white; in some districts it is twice as great.

This apparent racial handicap is of supreme importance not only to the ten and a half millions of Negroes in the United States but also to their white neighbors, employers, and friends. Behind the actual loss of human life, measured in suffering and money, lies a tremendous burden of illness and lowered vitality, much of which inevitably is passed on to industry and community. Recently a well-known health administrator publicly advised northern manufacturers not to move their factories to the South, declaring that the apparent cheapness of labor and some materials in the South was more than counterbalanced by the high morbidity rate which they must expect among their employes (both white and Negro). Among the few bits of exact evidence which we have on morbidity is the finding of a sociological survey of the Negro residents of Cape Girardeau, Missouri, carried out under the direction of the Missouri Negro Industrial Commission. In this small group the workers had averaged during the past year a loss of 65 days—18 per cent of the year—due to illness. The Negro Year Book estimates that 450,000 Negroes are seriously ill at any one time and that the annual loss of the race in earnings through sickness and death is $300,000,000.

Not the least important angle of the problem of illness is the danger which it entails to one's neighbors. In the South, and to an increasing extent in the North, Negroes are employed as domestic servants often in close contact with young children, or as porters, waiters and in similar occupations which imply a personal relationship with whites. The Missouri Tuberculosis Association estimates that while Negroes constitute only 5 per cent of the population of the state, they compose 34 per cent of the total number of persons in such vocations. In Missouri tuberculosis is four times as prevalent among Negroes as among whites. The association concludes that the "first line of engagement with the enemy tuberculosis is to save Negroes from the disease." Much the same line of argument could be adopted for typhoid fever and the venereal diseases, which we have reason to believe of special prevalence among Negroes.

ANY attempt to define exactly this problem of illness and death among Negroes is blocked first by a lack of adequate statistics. Vital statistics prior to 1920 include chiefly Negro residents of northern cities. The reports of life insurance companies, which contain much of the detailed information, similarly include only a special group, not representative of the race as a whole in this country and probably of greater intelligence and earning capacity than the average northern Negro. Any interpretation of northern figures must take account also of the large numbers of Negro immigrants from the South and the West Indies who are still struggling to adjust themselves to changed conditions.

Due in part probably to these changes—and in part probably to a restricted diet and a lack of sunshine as well as to their dark skin, the great majority of Negro children in northern cities develop rickets. (See The Survey: April 15, 1923.) Some clinicians estimate that hardly a Negro child in New York City escapes having the disease in at least a mild form. Undoubtedly this widespread condition, which so often causes a narrow restricted chest development, is responsible for much of the high prevalence of respiratory diseases among Negroes and has its effect upon the infantile death rate, and upon the tuberculosis mortality rate of later years. Another of its serious and lasting consequences—deformity of the pelvic bones—may have a bearing upon the high maternity death rate for Negro women. In six states which report, the death rate among white mothers from puerperal causes is 6.3 per 1,000 live births; among Negro mothers it is 11.3. Much of this discrepancy, however, is undoubtedly due to inferior care.

In the eleven states which keep separate records, the adjusted rate of mortality from tuberculosis is three times as great for Negroes as for whites. About the same ratio holds for respiratory diseases, according to the statistics of

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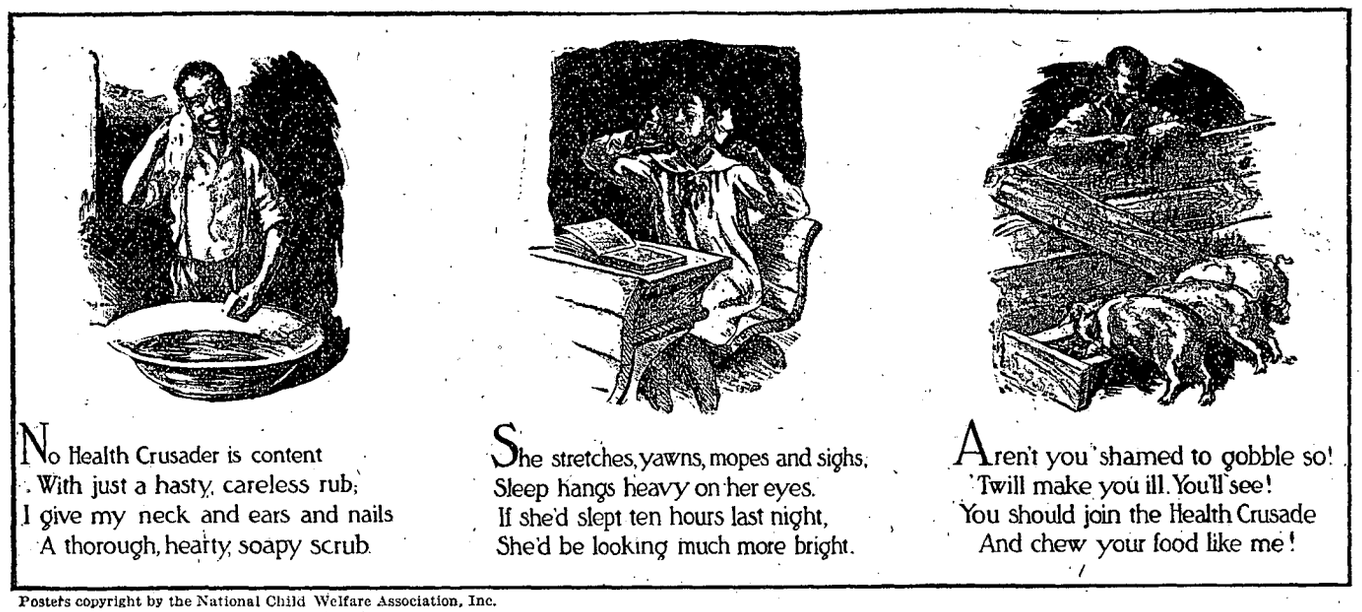
No Health Crusader is content
With just a hasty, careless rub;
I give my neck and ears and nails
A thorough, hearty, soapy scrub.
She stretches, yawns, mopes and sighs.
Sleep hangs heavy on her eyes.
If she'd slept ten hours last night,
She'd be looking much more bright.
Aren't you shamed to gobble so!
'Twill make you ill. You'll see!
You should join the Health Crusade
And chew your food like me!

Posters copyright by the National Child Welfare Association, Inc.

the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. Typhoid fever strikes with only slightly less favoritism. There is little reliable information on malaria, but there is reason to believe it occurs with special frequency among Negroes, and while statistics on the venereal diseases are notoriously fragmentary and inaccurate, there is some ground also for holding them an even greater problem among Negroes than whites.

On the mere statement of these staggering handicaps it would be easy enough to conclude that the Negro is an inferior physical machine, and that he cannot be expected—at least in the United States—to withstand the struggle for existence with the chances of endurance and success which the white man possesses.

Fortunately there are a number of reasons for believing that such a conclusion is unwarranted. In general, the Negro death rate has shown a greater decline in recent years than the white: the decline in the rate for whites in the registration area between 1910 and 1920 was 11.7 per cent; that for Negroes, 23.9 per cent. In New York City, where the problems of the Negro population were aggravated by the influx of blacks from the South and the West Indies, the decline in the Negro death rate between 1910 and 1921 amounted to 28.3 per cent, while that of the whites was 30.5 per cent. The differences between the death rates of Negroes in cities and in rural districts give additional proof of the influence of environment. Moreover, at any one time the death rate among Negroes compares favorably with certain groups of whites. Assistant Surgeon-General John W. Trask pointed out in the Public Health Reports (March 17, 1916) that the Negro rate of 1912 in the United States compared favorably with that of the white populations of Hungary, Roumania, Spain and Austria in the same year. An earlier study in New York City (Medical Record, Jan. 25, 1908) showed that the death rate in 1906 among persons whose parents were born in Italy was 36.43; of those whose parents were born in Austria-Hungary, 23.4, and of Negroes, 27.16.

"The death rate among the colored is about what the mortality of whites was about twenty years ago," said Dr. Louis I. Dublin, statistician of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, recently in writing of improved conditions of health among members of the Negro race. Twenty years covers the greater period of the widespread crusades against tuberculosis, malaria, typhoid fever and infant mortality. That these crusades first showed waves of improvement in the white population is only another way of saying that they depend in large part on the sanitation and the education which is most easily available to groups with higher incomes. The Negro quarter is the last section of a city to be reached and cleaned up in a campaign against cesspools or malarial mosquitos.

When an Alabama county is spending $7.03 on teachers' salaries for each white child, and 13 cents for each colored child, it is useless to expect its colored population to make as intelligent use of even what facilities they have for meeting personal and family problems as their white neighbors. The illiteracy and ignorance of colored populations in the South is at least partly responsible for the superstitions which surround the midwife of the southern states who attends about 80 per cent of the Negro births, and through her to the needless loss of mothers and babies. (In one Arkansas county recently studied by the Bureau of Child Hygiene it was found that one of every 23 babies was stillborn, while the average for the United States is one in 45.)

Studies by the Children's Bureau have demonstrated again and again that the infant mortality rate is in inverse proportion to the family income, a fact which must be considered in contemplating the high infant death rates of a race which is unprivileged economically. One of the most recent studies of the bureau—that of Baltimore—finds that even among groups with equally low incomes, the death rate of babies is increased by half when the mother works outside the home, which in turn should be linked with the estimate of the secretary of the New York Urban League that four out of five Negro mothers in New York are obliged to supplement the family income by "working out." In many northern cities a Negro family is obliged to pay higher rents for poorer quarters than a white family; even the same income cannot be stretched as far. Overcrowding results inevitably—with a whole trail of undesirable effects upon the health and integrity of the family. It is estimated that three-quarters of the families in Harlem, the Negro center of New York City, have to eke out the income and help pay the high rents by taking in lodgers.

Those very fields in which the Negro death rate is still

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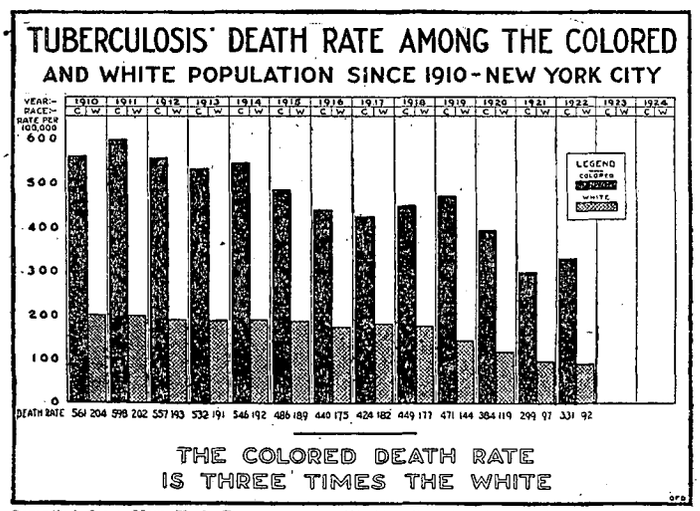
relatively the highest—tuberculosis, deaths from puerperal causes, infant mortality, malaria, typhoid—are those which can be conquered by education, sanitation, medical care, and a family income which admits of adequate food and housing, the very factors which Negroes so often have been unable to attain. Where there has been an opportunity for them to grasp, as the figures of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company amply attest, improvement in all of these respects has been nothing short of startling.

While the decade between 1910 and 1920 registered the smallest percentage increase of the Negro population in the history of the country and a city-ward movement of the race, which from the point of view of health has had an immediate unfavorable result, it registered also the quick response of Negro communities to the measures of public health advance which have been proved valid for the white race. There is some evidence to support the assertion that under the plantation régime the slaves, valued by their white owners as property, and living under conditions which did not differ substantially from those of the neighboring whites, showed none of the predisposition to tuberculosis and other respiratory diseases which now are considered characteristics peculiar to the race. In a paper read at the Washington conference, Eugene Kinckle Jones of the National Urban League quoted interesting figures bearing on this point:

> Figures showing the death rates of the white and the colored populations of Mobile, Ala., as far back as 1843 and of Charleston, S. C., as far back as 1822 show that the white death rate was far in excess of that of Negroes. In Mobile in the period from 1843 to 1846 the average annual white death rate was 45.8 per thousand and the average annual Negro death rate was 23.1 per thousand. In the period from 1852 to 1855, the average annual death rate for the whites of Mobile was 54.4 per thousand and for Negroes it was 34.7 per thousand. In Charleston, in the period from 1822 to 1830, the white average annual death rate was 32.7 per thousand and for Negroes it was 28.2 per thousand; while in the period from 1831 to 1840, the white average annual death rate was 25.24 and for the Negro it was 25.02 per thousand.
>
> At the close of the Civil War, we therefore find a group of Negroes living principally in the South—rural in the main—possessed of relatively good health and prepared with a good physical background to begin a life of freedom and to take up the intricate and difficult problems of the new civilization.

A strong case certainly can be made for the statement that the higher chances of disease and death which the Negro indisputably faces now are the result of a national breakdown in the difficult task of meeting the terrific handicaps—ignorance, dependence, social stigma—which our social organization imposes upon a subject or a newly liberated people. If this is true, all the movements started by white and Negro groups to improve the housing, education, and economic opportunities of the race will inevitably produce increasing dividends in health and longer life, and the more specific movements toward meeting Negro health problems—the work of the United States Public Health Service, or state departments of health which are undertaking special campaigns, such as Georgia, Mississippi, Arkansas, Missouri; of the National Urban League and its local branches and of the national and local health organizations must show increasing dividends. For the present, the grossly unequal chances of the white and the black Americans must continue to challenge all who are working for the country's social betterment, which will depend in no small part on the ability of both groups to work together to build conditions under which the Negro race can survive.

MARY ROSS



Compiled from New York Department of Health Reports. G. J. Drolet, statistician, Research Service, New York Tuberculosis Association

Salvaged Families

IN SPITE of local or regional and racial differences in the rate of decline, it may be stated that for fifty years past the annual death rate from tuberculosis has been falling in the United States registration area, in those states individually which have had reasonably accurate records and in those of the larger cities of the country for which reliable data can be obtained.

It has been the custom to interpret the improvement in the situation in terms of lives saved, of lives lengthened, of deaths prevented or postponed. Or we have indulged in the fascinating pastime of calculating the cost of tuberculosis in terms of dollars spent for care in sickness, earnings lost, or life values. We have applied these estimated cash equivalents of disease to the burden of the nation, to the tax upon a community in a year, to the load carried chiefly by the family of the sick person or by the invalid himself.

While such figures are convincing, they are but cold facts and leave us without some of the comfort which I believe we are entitled to. The bald figures, I believe, are but the commonplace expression of a great social accomplishment to be told in terms of salvaged families and permanence of home life.

When it is remembered that approximately 33 per cent of all relief work in New York City* is for families in which tuberculosis is the main if not the only cause of dependency; when we recall the fact that 41 per cent of the relief for widows given by the city is in families where tuberculosis caused the husband's death; when we see that of the three to four millions of dollars spent by the city for child-welfare, in 42 per cent it was the death of the father from tuberculosis that caused the dependency of the children, and when we know that about one-half of the entire cost of work of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor was due to needs, in families and among individuals, created by tuberculosis deaths and sickness, we can visualize perhaps better than

* While the experience quoted comes entirely from New York City (I am indebted to the staff of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor for the facts upon which the argument is based), many other cities where the progress of social and relief work is recorded could presumably produce similar reports.

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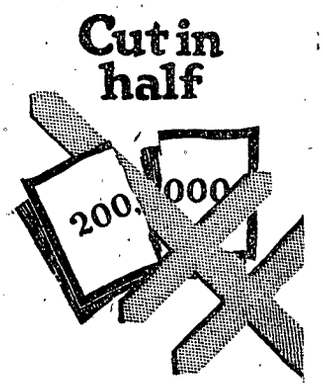
by death rates or per capita costs the wide-spread benefits, reaching into increasing thousands of homes, due to the quick detection of tuberculosis, the removal of infected persons from close contact with the well, and the teaching of the laws of personal hygiene and the observance of social and economic justice to one's fellows, upon which the control of the disease depends.

There has been a decided reduction in the proportion of cases in which the cause of dependency was chiefly or only tuberculosis among the 5,000 families, more or less, under care each year by the A. I. C. P. In 1917-1918 the percentage of all families (4829) under care in which one or more members had tuberculosis was 17.6 per cent, 850 families. In 1921-1922, among 5518 families, only 635, or 11.5 per cent were tuberculosis families. During these five years the total relief budget rose from $148,285.19 to $345,373.59 and the relief among the tuberculosis families from $53,019 to $103,444.



National Tuberculosis Association

What eighteen years has done to the tuberculosis deaths per year in the United States

Personal observation convinces me that the quality and length of relief service has approached more nearly the ideal in the past year than in any preceding year and this has been possible because cases of tuberculosis are detected earlier, a smaller number of the exposed members of the families have been infected, or at least so heavily as to show active diseases, and the family in most instances has not been so long below the level of self-support that the most serious problems of under-nourishment, secondary diseases and long non-employment have developed. Similar but less marked changes have occurred in the experience of the United Hebrew Charities during the same period, a reduction from 12 per cent (593 out of 4962 families) in 1917 to 10.4 per cent (394 out of 3783 families) in 1922; and in the Charity Organization Society, from 13.5 per cent (1920) to 9.7 per cent in 1922 (figures for earlier years not available). In the experience of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities little change was recorded, the percentage in 1919 being 7.8 and in 1922 7.6 out of a total of families under care of 3400 to 4000.

Assembling the experience of these four relief and social service agencies, we find that while in 1918 14.65 per cent were tuberculosis families, in 1922 the percentage was 9.96. These agencies serve families throughout the five boroughs of the city of New York, and during the five years 1918 to 1922 the city population grew from 5,482,600 to 5,839,738 or 6 per cent, and the tuberculosis deaths fell from 10,098 to 5,802 or 42 per cent. We might put it that the tuberculosis family relief rate fell 32 per cent while the tuberculosis death rate fell 46 per cent in a community that increased 6 per cent in population in five years. Furthermore, during these five years 1918-1922, there was a reduction of 36.3 per cent in the number of tuberculosis patients cared for in the hospitals in the city, a reduction of 16.7 per cent in the total number of tuberculosis patients, residents of the city of New York, segregated in all hospitals and sanatoria either in or out of the city and a reduction of 14 per cent in the number registered with the Department of Health. Certainly these reductions in the registration, segregation and hospitalization in a steadily growing population convince one that a large part of an accepted social burden has been removed. If we consider that each registered patient is a member of a family group, we may claim that in the city of New York in these five years there have been 15,876 families without the anxiety and fear which tuberculosis brings who would have suffered in this way if the incidence of 1918 had been maintained. In addition there were 3773 families from whose midst a member was not taken for a period of segregation in a hospital or sanatorium which would have gone through this trying experience if the 1918 rate of removals had continued.

In this connection it is well to remember that the sick rates run parallel with the death rates and for every death there were probably at least seven times as many persons needing medical care.

From the social, or shall we say the home-making point of view, a significant fact is that from 62 to 68 per cent of all deaths were of males, during these five years, although the male population is less than the female. The male, even in the present day, is more commonly the main or only support of the family. It would seem that we have not yet equalized the hazards of men's and women's lives in cities, for while the tuberculosis death rate has declined, the predominance of male over female deaths has altered, if at all, in the direction of greater losses in proportion among males.

Of still further significance is the change in the age at which most deaths from tuberculosis occur, from 37½ in 1911 to nearly 47 at the present time, indicating a postponement of incapacity from this disease, which we may fairly claim has prevented the throwing of children into institutions or industry, and has permitted more of the tuberculosis families to work and save enough to escape dependency. To offset this is, however, a change of relatively recent origin, namely the reduction in the age at which women die, from a peak at the ages of 25-29 to one in the period 20-25. Does it not seem probable that the men, owing to better working conditions, shorter hours and higher pay, have succeeded in postponing a breakdown in health, while the girls and young women, eager to seize the opportunities for economic independence, have hastened the development of active disease?

Hospitals for bone and joint tuberculosis in various places are running with many vacant beds, and many a city and county is finding a steadily decreasing pressure for accommodation of tuberculosis patients in its institutions. The corollary—less breaking in family circles, less need of help, and need for a shorter term of help among the families of tuberculosis patients—is one to give us courage.

The postponement of the date of death or the increase of life expectancy is a social factor of large importance, permitting as it does more commonly a completed family career. Is not one of the reasons why there is so much less commitment of children to institutions, in addition to the change in the attitude of society, the great reduction in the deaths of mothers from tuberculosis, and the fact that when they do die it is more commonly at an age when the children are no longer entirely dependent on adult care and direction?

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

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COMMUNITIES

Muscovy on Manhattan

KOLKA bowed and returned to his seat with a firm tread. His testimony, a sing-song poem, had convinced the jury. They smiled approval. I was surrounded by Russia. The curious guttural sounds and the buzzing, bobbing heads were silhouetted against a window. Was there a turnip-topped church in the distance? I was almost afraid to look. Yes, there was a church just across Tompkins Square—not domed but spired and capped with a cross. I came back to New York with a start: I was in a school-room, or rather three long school-rooms thrown together end to end. The parents' committee, fifteen in number, were grouped at my end of the room, judging the work of the teacher, who stood by her class of thirty eight-year-olds. It was not an easy group to convince, especially since the jury directed the examination. The reading and declamations were good—but what would the jury ask next? The teacher waited.

"Please be so kind give dictation," said a common laborer who arose to a great height and bowed to the teacher. He was the chairman.

"Sasha, write thou on board," commanded the sweet-faced teacher.

One of the little girls came forward and spelled out slowly in Russian characters "Bolshaya komnata": "My mind registered large room." Then Nina, Ivanushka, Anna, Dasha and a dozen others wrote phrases one after the other. A proud father, a big husky house-wrecker, cleaned the board each time and never removed his eyes from the mysterious little hands as they put their evidence on the board.

The teacher seemed terribly nervous; her wrist-watch seemed never out of her sight or consciousness. She whispered to the chairman. A man was sent out and came back with a cloudy face. The trial was at a standstill. No one seemed to know what was the matter. The teacher and chairman conferred again, then the latter came to me.

"Please, sir, be so kind, permit me! We have trouble." He spoke his Russian in such a quick agitated way. It was difficult for an American to follow.

"President, Professor S., our honorable president is expected. He must sign the certificates of the pupils. We must give them out now. Be so kind as to sign the certificates in his stead."

What a request! Professor S. is a famous Russian with many honors and decorations from the Tsar. What would my name mean to those children? But how to protest, when one's Russian is lame at best, and when overcome with appreciation?

Twice, thrice I tried to make my unfitness clear and then teacher and committee came to the aid of the chairman and I began to slip. With pen in hand I sat down to practice my name in Russian, when—praise God—the professor came with breathless apologies.

The next class, numbering thirteen, ages eight to twelve, filed into the room. In the beginning the tests were similar to those of the first group, but the words were harder and the dictation longer.

The foreman of the jury then took a hand. "Ask them about literature." He seemed to think they would fail.

The teacher gave titles of Russian books, the class gave the authors; she reversed the process and the same popping response came forth.

"Ask them about history," from the jury.

"When did Rurick rule?" from the teacher. Every hand went up.

"Who founded Petrograd?" The excitement was too great. "Peter Velliki," came the unanimous reply.

Next was a sketch by two girls and a boy. Such abandon, such phantasy expressed in those simple little gestures.

When it was all over I asked for a history of the school. This is what I learned. The Russian society "Nauka" (Nauka means science in Russian) is a mutual benefit society composed of some four hundred working men, pure Russians of the peasant class from various parts of Russia, which was organized in 1905. I found that in addition to its insurance and mutual aid activities Nauka had always endeavored to supply some of the educational and most of the social needs of its members. In so far as is possible for a people intensely interested in politics the society has always maintained a non-political platform. Its home, a well-kept three-story house on East Tenth Street, is well furnished with a music room with a piano and balylaikas, four large class rooms, a room for chess, checkers, pool and billiards, an auditorium equipped for dramatic performances, a Russian-English library with about a thousand volumes, and a restaurant in the basement.

The educational activities have varied according to the needs and interests of the group. The Russian language, history and literature has always been a part of the curriculum, and arithmetic, chemistry, botany, electricity, astronomy and agriculture have appeared in the curriculum as teachers were available. English has been given

Courtesy of E. Weyhe

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more or less sporadically by American organizations. The expense of this educational work has almost without exception been carried by fees collected from those who studied.

As time went on and these tailors, grocers, house-wreckers, mechanics and laborers became established as heads of families they often resented the apathetic attitude of their children toward the rich culture of their mother country. To expose these young Americans to that precious heritage and to reestablish in some cases a completely broken means of communication between the child, who refused to talk anything but English, and the parent who knew only Russian, the Children's School was established three years ago. The president of the society, a shirt-maker by trade, appointed a parent's committee composed of a half-dozen mothers and nine men. This committee hired the teacher, collected the fifty cents a week per child from the parents and advertised, promoted, and generally supervised the work of the school.

The children attend the public schools in the morning and the Russian school two hours in the afternoon. Unfortunately the requests the committee has made for help in the way of equipment from the public schools have been flatly refused or evaded. The Y. M. C. A., through its Russian secretary, has been helpful on occasion and has now arranged for space in a church where the school may be enlarged and extended to other groups. Already in Henry Street and Harlem other Russian neighborhoods are taking up this idea of supplementing the work of public schools with cooperative cultural service.

Nauka's school will soon reopen for the fall and winter. The children will be taught the language, history, geography, literature, art, dances, songs and music of their parents' home-land. There are to be new comfortable seats for the smaller children, bought with the five hundred dollar balance which remained in the committee's hands when it closed the books in June.

It is a very significant thing that these Russians are doing. They are giving their children a double social heritage. These East Side children have a chance to discover the good in both American and Russian culture, and are twice as rich from this point of view as our American youngsters of native stock.

THOMAS L. COTTON

State-taught Safety

Since the following was written, Lewis T. Bryant, state commissioner of labor for New Jersey, has died suddenly at Atlantic City. To Colonel Bryant's vision is due the development of the Safety Museum in Jersey City—an outstanding achievement in the education of those who live by industry. He gave the state twenty years of continuous service under both Republican and Democratic administrations and the museum may well stand as his memorial.

NEW Jersey has forged ahead of other states in reclaiming the victims of industrial accident. The Rehabilitation Clinic at Jersey City gives one of the most perfect examples available of the miracles achieved by professional skill, the X-ray, the ultra violet ray, and the other servants of modern orthopedics in restoring torn muscles, broken bones, and other physical injuries. There, and in similar clinics at Newark, Trenton, Camden and Paterson, more than 14,000 monthly treatments are given.

Even more distinctive, however, is the Safety Museum established by the Department of Labor in its Jersey City headquarters, militating for the prevention of accident and disease in industry as the clinics work for cure. There are safety museums in Paris and Munich; once there was one in New York, which is to be reopened this fall under the direction of the New York Department of Labor; but now the work of New Jersey in this field stands substantially unique in this country.

Suppose yourself a manufacturer, anxious to protect your employes against the whirl of revolving wheels and belts which may grind out death or lifelong injury in a second of careless inattention. In the museum you can see machines operated with various types of guards which meet the standards of the department. Here also are exhibits of elevator devices which reduce the possibility of accident to a minimum; of ladders which cannot slip; of whirling laundry machines, capable of sucking in a man's arm or even his whole body, which cannot be started until the cover is closed, and of dozens of other safeguarded pieces of the mechanism of industry. The factory owner, watching these devices which have been installed by the firms which make and market them, can readily determine what best meets his needs and the state's requirements.

Safety, moreover, has been interpreted to cover a much broader field than the application to motor machinery which it is likely to connote. In the last published report of the Department of Labor (1921) only one in seven of the fatal accidents and less than one in four of the non-fatal accidents were attributable to motor machinery, and a still smaller proportion of each to power-working machines. Falls of the worker were responsible for the greatest number of fatal accidents, and falling objects accounted for the largest proportion of the accidents which did not result in death. No sincere attempt to remove the conditions which predispose to these and other forms of accidents can disregard the worker's general surroundings, or the thousand and one details of his own health and mental attitude which condition his personal fitness. Such considerations lead to the exhibits of wall decorations which test for 70 per cent reflecting value or higher; to more than a dozen lighting systems adapted to different kinds of work and calculated to obviate eye-strain and the glare and black shadows which too often occasion accidents in factories; to systems for the removal of steam, excessive heat, and the fumes and dusts which form the insidious hazards of many occupations. There are installations of model lavatories, which make cleanliness easily attainable, of first-aid equipment which should be at the disposal of the industrial physician or nurse, and of a cafeteria equipment such as would be used in a lunch-room for employes. There are charts and photographs to show safe and unsafe practices in various trades, to point out graphically the conditions which resulted in some specific accident, or to illustrate such essential conditions of the workers' welfare as housing or food. For those who would follow out these various subjects in still greater detail there is a collection of books, pamphlets, and reports on the phases of industrial equipment and practice which bear on safety.

Is the Safety Museum used? Emphatically, yes. In addition to the employers who are summoned because of the violation of industrial rules and led to examine the kind of safeguards which they must provide, willy-nilly, there is a much larger body of factory owners who under the long administration of Commissioner Lewis T. Bryant, have come to see the advantages of cooperation with the Department

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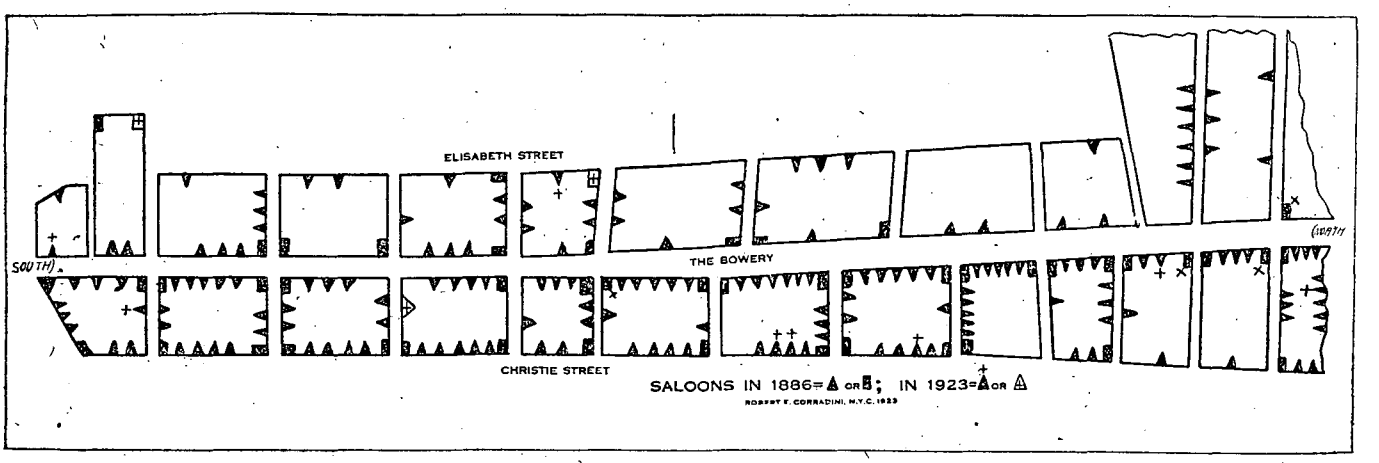

THE VANISHING SALOONS OF THE BOWERY

The World League Against Alcoholism is authority for this map which indicates that of the 97 saloons on New York's too-famous Bowery in 1886 but six remained in May, 1923, while a similar ratio holds on the parallel and cross-streets. Restaurants, stores of many sorts, and a hobo bookshop have taken the places of Bowery barrooms

of Labor in making their plants as efficient and as safe as possible, and study the equipment voluntarily to that end. Moreover, a man interested in some specialized type of equipment can hardly escape from the museum without obtaining new and improved ideas on a score of other points which confront him wherever he turns. The Department of Labor has made its Jersey headquarters a center for all the phases of its work. Here is a bureau of vocational guidance for boys and girls just entering industry, the employment bureau for older workers, skilled and unskilled, the compensation court, the clinics for the victims of industrial accident, and all the bureaus under which the routine inspection and checking of New Jersey's scores of industries is administered. Visitors who come to the building on any one of a dozen other errands stray into the museum. In connection with it, moreover, a regular series of lectures on various aspects of industrial management and safety is given to the superintendents and foremen of factories in the vicinity, who come in a body, a factory or two at a time. There are also, of course, talks and exhibits arranged by the department in the factories themselves or before public gatherings of people who are interested in hearing how work is and should be done.

THE CIVIC FEDERATION of Dallas conceives it to be its duty to federate not only organizations and people, but facts and ideas. So it maintains a research library, into which information is poured from 51 national organizations, 17 bureaus of governmental research, 38 state boards of charities, 14 university extension headquarters, 7 schools of social work, 37 community chests, 138 charity organization societies, 17 state boards of health, 9 civic leagues, 17 leading libraries, and numerous federal and state departments and bureaus. When stirred up by an active research secretary, this material is classified and indexed according to a simple system, and is then ready to be drawn off by employers and workers, students and teachers, study clubs, public officials, social agencies, and the workers of the federation itself. The library now contains some 16,000 hand-picked pamphlets, 800 volumes, and 31 periodicals carefully chosen. It is "a small machine that is running and productive all the time—which is preferable to a big one that neither runs nor produces." When an incoming pamphlet seems to be unusually readable and valuable to laymen, the library goes outside its usual function and secures from ten to fifty additional copies which are mailed to the people in Dallas to whom they will be most interesting.

VOTERS in the city of Butte and the county of Silver Bow, Montana, are turning over in their minds a new charter, on which they will probably vote in the fall, which provides city-county consolidation "in a more thorough and consistent manner than elsewhere," writes A. R. Hatton in the National Municipal Review. An elective commission of seven is to appoint a manager who will have full administrative responsibility. "The act is notable for its brevity, comprehensiveness, the simplicity of the system of government which it provides, the popular control assured and the completeness of its financial provisions." These results could be accomplished, Dr. Hatton adds, because "the ground was cleared of all old governmental growths and a single specimen of a new variety planted in their place"—a significant contrast to the situation in Philadelphia, where according to the same number of the Review the halfway consolidation effected in 1854 has produced increasing ambiguity and confusion. The proposed charter of the city and county of Butte may be secured from the National Municipal League, 261 Broadway, New York.

IT WAS ALL RIGHT for Merton of the Movies; the Montague girl saw to that. But off the stage, the problem of stage-struck adolescents who flock to Hollywood to become famous on the silver screen—the preferred phrase—is not so easily solved. The Y. W. C. A. announces that the stream of optimistic maidens pouring into the movie town is so great that the old Hollywood Studio Club, with accommodations for twenty girls at a time, is far outgrown. Motion picture producers have now subscribed $120,000 toward a fund of $150,000 to enable the Y. W. C. A. to multiply these accommodations by five. It takes an average of two weeks to get a girl either settled in Hollywood (usually in a much less romantic position than that of actress) or safely on her way back to the home she left. Though the Studio Club uniformly urges the girls who write for reservations not to come, ten out of twelve come anyhow.

A BIT of really useful cooperation is revealed in a recent report by Bleecker Marquette, executive secretary of the Better Housing League of Cincinnati. This organization, the Board of Health, the Travelers' Aid Society and the Americanization Committee, it seems, take joint responsibility for meeting immigrant families, having them physically examined and suitable homes found for them, and for instructing them in their rights and duties as tenants. These certainly are first steps in making the newcomers feel at home and at the same time safer for the health of the city. Thereafter classes for training in citizenship and the league's visiting housekeepers continue the educational work.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Indiana's Insanity

THE climax of criminal indifference in the treatment of the insane in the United States is reached in Indiana, says Joseph T. Fishman in his recently published book, Crucibles of Crime. There is some ground for the assertion.

During the past ten years 9,495 insane people have been placed in county jails in Indiana; some were held in jail for months and years. John A. Brown, secretary of the board of state charities, is authority for that figure. Laurel C. Thayer, chief probation officer of the city court in Indianapolis, counted 85 men and women who were held in the Marion County jail (the county which contains Indianapolis) for periods varying from 24 hours to two months, between January 1 and the end of July of this year. Detained on the charge of vagrancy, they were supposedly held for examination and commitment if found insane. But one man died in jail: the Central Hospital for the Insane, where he would normally have been sent, reported that "seventy men were sleeping on the floor, and the Marion County quota was full."

Miss Thayer tersely sketches in the Indianapolis Times this unfortunate patient's situation:

> No friends or relatives called at the court after his commitment to jail on February 23, when the case was continued to March 7. He had to be given the same shelter and food that convicted criminals are given at the county jail. No social worker was assigned or paid by the city or state to search out his friends, learn his family history, or expedite an early commitment after the insanity inquest.

Her observation includes also other miserable cases. One was that of a "refined gentlewoman, the daughter of a former business man of another state":

> In search of employment, she had come to this city, had taken a room and was sewing by the day. One night she suffered severe pain in her head; a doctor was summoned and advised hospital care, but instead the police were called because the city hospital cannot take mental cases.
>
> She awoke to find herself on an iron cot in the city prison. There were others in the same cell, women arrested for drunkenness and even worse offenses. "Why was I brought to this terrible place?" she asked the matron the next morning.

A young ex-service man who was acting "queer" was thrown into the county jail this spring in one of the largest cities of the state. A representative of the Veteran's Bureau attempted, without avail, to persuade the man to fill out an application for compensation. A worker from the local social service organization went to the jail to interview him, but he had escaped. "You will agree," writes its secretary, "that the county jail is no place to hold a young ex-service man, especially who is not really a criminal, but is wholly irresponsible for his condition." Perhaps the boy took the wisest course.

When the state board made its tally of the insane on record in 1922, there were 507 in county poor asylums, 55 in county jails, 130 in the care of county clerks, 270 on furlough from state hospitals, and 5,634 in the state hospitals. The situation of some of those in the poorhouses was discussed in a survey of Fort Wayne made in 1920 by F. D. Preston of the Council of Social Agencies:

> These people are confined in a special building on the asylum grounds and are treated virtually as prisoners. They are kept constantly behind bars, and most of them sleep locked in cells. No conscious attempt is made to provide them with either recreation or amusement suitable to their capacity, and it has always seemed to me that this county asylum is no different from any other county asylum, and in no county asylum have I ever found an understanding or appreciation of the plight of the insane.

Mr. Preston found one alleviating circumstance to which he ironically drew attention: the insane patients in the asylum were not subject to the operation of economic law which prevails in the jails, where the sheriff profits personally if the cost of prisoners' food is kept below the sixty cents per day per head which he is allowed.

There is no novelty in this barbaric state of things so far as Indiana social workers are concerned. As far back as 1909 the report of the state board of charities brought this indictment:

> Nothing in our entire system of public charities is more distressing than the enforced presence of insane persons in county poor asylums and jails. These institutions lack proper facilities for caring for them. The secretary of this board, on a recent visit to an asylum, found an insane woman locked in a cell in the men's department of the custodial building. She had no privacy whatever. It is true that many harmless cases which do not require special care are to be found in the asylums. . . . There is also to be considered the injustice of turning into an insane asylum the home the public provides for the aged and sick poor.

As to the violent patients who were kept in jail, sometimes for years, the report continues:

> Their lot is solitary imprisonment in a cell, often dark and gloomy and unsanitary; or, if they leave the cell for the corridor, they are subjected to the torment and ridicule of the other prisoners. Some of these insane have committed suicide in jail; others have beaten their poor bodies against the bars, fallen and bruised themselves upon the floor. Sometimes they assault their fellow prisoners and even murder them.

Though conditions have bettered since these more garish facts were true, the same criminal neglect of the insane persists after fourteen years. State facilities for their care are notoriously inadequate. A study made last year by the Indiana Committee on Mental Defectives (to which reference will be made later), based on eleven counties, indicated that there were 64,468 mental defectives in Indiana, or 2.2 per cent of the population. The feebleminded made up 1.74 per cent of the population, the insane .31 per cent, the epileptic .15 per cent. Of the feebleminded needing state care only 6.7 per cent were in state institutions; of the insane, 79 per cent were in the five state hospitals; of the epileptic 25 per cent were in the state village. Due mainly

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If You Are Found Insane in Indianapolis

YOU may be committed to jail by the city court.

It is nobody's official duty to follow up your case after you are sent there. It is the duty of the county clerk to see that you are committed to some institution, but he is short of clerical help and it may be a long time before he gets around to you.

It is nobody's business to make a home investigation of your case.

It takes time and bother to look up records. A physician must sign your recommitment papers if you have ever been in a state institution. But no physician is paid a fee to do this: you must wait his convenience and generosity.

If you are committed to the Central Hospital for the Insane, but the quota for your county is full, nobody sees to it that you are promptly sent elsewhere.

If your home is outside Indiana there are no facilities for furnishing transportation to your home when and if it is found.

to the niggardly policy of the legislature, the state institutions, as compared with those of other states, have hardly got out of the stage of mere custodial care. In 1922 only 271 persons were placed on furlough from the state hospitals. Though the superintendents have vision and desire to modernize their service, funds are lacking for social service and follow-up work. As a result the hospitals are glutted with cases which under happier circumstances would be cared for outside the walls, and the overflow into the jails is a natural result.

Indiana has not a single public psychopathic hospital. Dr. Charles P. Emerson, dean of the University of Indiana College of Medicine, places such an institution in the forefront of preventive agencies. A bill before the last legislature sought to provide $250,000 for the addition of a psychopathic ward at the Robert W. Long Hospital in Indianapolis, which serves the whole state, but along with most of the constructive social legislation which was offered it went to the scrap-heap. The usefulness of such a hospital in freeing the patients who come to it in the early stages of mental disorder from the incubus of insanity, and freeing the state from responsibility for their care, is obvious. Less than one-half of the patients admitted to the Boston Psychopathic Hospital, for instance, are committed to state hospitals.

True, the legislature of 1919 authorized state hospitals to receive voluntary patients, to establish mental clinics, and to hire field agents. But only a few voluntary patients have been received, and no travelling clinics have been established. The Southeastern Hospital is the only one of the five state hospitals to institute social service work, and only one worker has there been provided.

Indiana is yet without mental clinics—of the sort that served 13,328 persons in a single year in New York state. Several cities have recognized the importance of school and juvenile court clinics: none has yet established one.

The most hopeful factor in the situation is the Indiana Committee on Mental Defectives. It was appointed by Governor Ralston (now United States senator) in 1915, with Father Francis H. Gavisk, former president of the National Conference, as chairman. With the assistance of such experts as Dr. Arthur H. Estabrook and Edna R. Jathro it has devoted itself for eight years to scientific investigations which stake out the lines of future progress. Its reports are gradually forming a picture of the problem of mental deficiency throughout the state. The traditional difficulty is suggested by the study of D county, in the northeastern part of Indiana, where nearly 90 per cent of the population is native-born and 75 per cent is native stock of two generations. A major part of its early settlers came from New England and New York. The people are democratic and individualistic; communications are poor; newcomers are rare. There are few social agencies. The committee reports:

> As in other places, the existence of mentally defective persons in the county is disclaimed by the average citizen, zealous for the good name of his county. . . . Therefore, for the most part, there is but little understanding and toleration displayed toward the mentally deficient in D county. Those who show erratic peculiarities in addition to their deficiency are relentlessly persecuted, while the incompetent and shiftless are irrevocably judged by the standards of normality.

This committee is now pressing home the need for a mental clinic in connection with the juvenile court in Marion County.

There are signs that its work will be fruitful. The public conscience is being aroused. The leading newspapers of the state, such as the Indianapolis News, are ventilating the facts. As Florida has shaken herself free from the lash, so Indiana is determined to unshackle her insane.

PAUL L. BENJAMIN

Probation in Paris

WHAT FRENCH observers call a "small revolution" has been brought about this year in the care of juvenile delinquents in Paris, through a happy combination of American technique and French enthusiasm.

Though the law establishing children's courts in France was passed in January 1914, and the Paris children's court dates from March of that year, the provision for probation had never been worked out on a basis that promised consistent results. There had been only volunteer probation officers and no attempt had been made to organize, direct or coordinate their work. Outside Paris, indeed, there are yet no separate courts for juvenile delinquents, minors being tried by the regular courts in special closed sessions. In Paris the children's court has not acquired much prestige; a justice assigned to it has usually thought of himself as marking time in his professional progress; its procedure has differed little, if at all, from that which is followed in adult cases.

A doctor's thesis in the University of Paris by an American social worker, Chloe Owings, on The Treatment of

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Juvenile Delinquents in France, drew attention pointedly to this situation, the more so because Miss Owings' doctorate in sociology was the first to be granted to a woman by a French university. As a result of the discussion which followed its publication, it was decided to secure a full-time probation officer for the Paris court, and through the efforts of Judge Henri Rollet, now serving in that court, sufficient private funds were secured to underwrite a year's salary.

By a fortunate coincidence a French woman, Marie Therese Viellot, was found who could bring to this position not only faith and enthusiasm, but sound training in both French and American schools. Mlle. Viellot, a graduate of the French Training School for Nurses which has recently been placed on a broader basis by the American Committee for Devastated France, had spent a year in Boston through the generosity of a small group of internationally-minded Americans, known simply as "the Boston Committee," who provide every year a scholarship for a French student at the Boston School of Social Service. She had there acquainted herself with the methods not only of American casework, but of the children's court and psychiatric clinic.

Mlle. Viellot's task is not only to initiate systematic probation in the Paris court, but to create standards for all France in the treatment and prevention of juvenile delinquency. She has begun her work with the cordial support of a local committee headed by Judge Rollet and is assured of the cooperation of M. Gaston Lantz, president of the children's court, and of his colleagues. Professor Simon, whose name is linked with that of Binet, is to aid in developing clinical methods for the court.

Better Late . . .

DEEPLY convinced of the inadequacy of "care by contract" as a method of discharging the government's obligations to ex-service men with mental disorders, but without a dollar available for new hospitals, Richard Cholmeley-Jones, director of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance in 1920, took this problem directly to the governors of some of the states that had contributed the largest quotas of soldiers to the army.

Three days after its receipt, Alfred E. Smith, then serving his first term as governor of New York, transmitted the director's letter to the legislature, with a moving appeal for an appropriation of $3,000,000 to erect a Soldiers' Memorial Hospital on a site owned by the state at Creedmore, Long Island. In ten days the bill was a law; in three weeks a commission had been appointed, preliminary plans prepared, men and material assembled at the site. The contract with the government, providing that the United States should rent the hospital when completed at an annual rent of ten percent of its actual cost, had been drawn to suit the solicitor of the Treasury Department, signed by the New York commission and was in Washington for signature by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The signature never came. Departmental resentment over the way in which the aggressive young director of the War Risk Bureau had gone straight to the states that had furnished troops for temporary aid in caring for them, and the official paralysis that accompanies an impending change in administration both helped to kill the project. A new Congress and a new secretary soon came in, a new state administration pledged to retrenchment was cold to the proposition, and in the winter of 1921 the act was repealed and the appropriation lapsed.

A turn of the political order brought Governor Smith into office again. The insane ex-service men, in almost double the number, were still in the state hospitals, but the hospital committee of the New York state department of the American Legion, under the leadership of Colonel Cornelius W. Wickersham, was fully aware of the situation and Governor Smith again sent a message to the legislature asking for their relief. This time he asked for a state Memorial Hospital that would be safe from the warring private interests at Washington that had doomed the "Creedmore Hospital." The legislature passed unanimously a bill authorizing a Memorial Hospital at Kings Park. The plan born in the fervent desire of Richard Cholmeley-Jones to see these men cared for has at last become effective, but too late to permit the young soldier who worked so indomitably for its accomplishment to see the fruits of his efforts.

The latest knowledge on the care and treatment of the insane has been considered in planning the new hospital group. There are three principal agencies in promoting the recovery of the insane: medically supervised occupation, recreation and hygiene. The plans provide a one-story occupational building with seven large, light, well-ventilated workrooms, which will permit the same maximum flexibility in the classification of the patients that has been sought in planning all the buildings. The recreational features, aside from those abundantly provided by nature in the site—with its high cliffs fronting Long Island Sound, bathing beach, and bracing salt air—include a modern assembly hall, gymnasium, athletic field and track and drill field for calisthenics. The hall is equipped for motion pictures, music and dramatics. The wards and day rooms are wired for radio transmitters.

With respect to the facilities for physical care and treatment, the hospital will set a new standard for diagnostic treatment and intensive work on the individual. The hospital and surgical building, in addition to modern operating rooms with their accessories, will contain all the most modern equipment for the various types of physical therapy and special medical and dental services. In this building there are a large number of single rooms, and no dormitory is larger than twenty beds. This will permit not only the classification of patients on the basis of behavior but also the more important classification on the basis of the type and cause of their condition. All incoming patients will pass through the surgical and hospital building, undergoing there a thorough examination and diagnostic treatment, upon the basis of which the classifications and assignments will be made.

In addition to the two present ward buildings, which will constitute a part of the new hospital group, there will be two new continued treatment buildings which, like the hospital and surgical building, will be characterized by a large number of single rooms and four-bed dormitories. The convalescent group of buildings is located on the cliff overlooking the Sound and well removed from the hospital proper.

The whole hospital and each of its units has been designed with a view to setting a new and higher standard in the cure and treatment of the insane. Here, for the first time in New York, facilities will be had for intensive work on individual patients.

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INDUSTRY

More Government in Industry

AMERICANS who are accustomed to bemoan the backwardness of their country in labor policies and who look with reverence on the achievements of Welsh miners or Czech woodworkers should give a thought to their own Chicago—not the Chicago of the packing houses or the steel plants, but the Chicago which is the second clothing market of the world. Here, out of what was notorious a decade ago as a city of sweat shops, has sprung one of the most advanced industrial organizations the world has ever seen.

Chicago clothing workers and clothing manufacturers, on the assumption that an industry is responsible for the involuntary unemployment of its members, are today jointly contributing to an unemployment fund from which benefits will be paid to workers who are involuntarily idle. For the first time in history, workers in a great industry have hired an university-bred employment expert to provide them with jobs and supply that industry with workers adapted to its manifold processes.

Twelve years ago these selfsame workers were unorganized and the manufacturers were fighting among themselves to survive. Nine languages spoken by the clothing workers presented a seemingly insurmountable barrier to united effort. During busy seasons the workers toiled long hours in the shops and carried work home so that their families might help them supplement miserable piece-work earnings. For months at a time the industry would be closed down and the workers would tramp the streets begging for a chance to work. The shops were ill-lighted, poorly ventilated and the system of contracting out work to be done in homes where poverty and, in some instances, disease prevailed was a millstone about the entire industry.

The modern era of the clothing industry begins in 1911 with the famous agreement between the firm of Hart Schaffner and Marx and the union. By the terms of the agreement a system of arbitration was substituted for the strike as a means of obtaining justice. For a long time many employers resisted the new order, but the union, which had evolved into the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, continued its organizing effort. By 1919 the arbitration machinery had been extended to the entire Chicago clothing market and the union was recognized as the spokesman for the 40,000 men and women engaged in the industry.

One of the most important features of the 1919 agreement between the union and the employers was the granting to the union of control over jobs. The union guaranteed to maintain an adequate labor supply in return for which the employers pledged themselves to apply to the union for workers and to give the union 48 hours in which to find satisfactory workers before hiring outside help.

Exercise of such power naturally resulted in close scrutiny. There were complaints of favoritism and politics from both employers and individual workers. Some of the employers declared they would not consent to the renewal of the agreement in 1922 unless they were assured more satisfactory service from the union's employment department. The union's plea for establishment of an unemployment insurance fund was resisted on the ground that the labor exchange was not working.

The Hazards of Job Control

Union officials admitted that there was something the matter with the first attempts at job control in a highly specialized industry. They observed that some of the employers' grievances were also the grievances of workers. If, for example, during the rush season some factories could not obtain sufficient cutters, the workers engaged in other processes might be thrown out of employment and suffer just as much as the employers did from failure of the employment office to have full control over the labor supply. The union maintained three offices in as many sections of the city and one office might have a surplus of cutters while employers in another section of the city were frantically calling for cutters.

In slack times the offices would be stormed by workers eager for places. "Stormed" was the word and victory in the form of a job went to him who was mighty of arm and ruthless of spirit. The luckless ones spent carfare to report day after day at the exchange only to discover that they could obtain no work.

Employers complained that they frequently received workers who were not suited to the needs of their plant. The firm which took pride in turning out well fitting garments of unusual quality like as not received speed artists whose only conception of workmanship was the number of garments turned out in a day. When experience demonstrated that the speed was congenital and that the worker would never turn out the kind of work desired by the firm, the man could not be dismissed under the agreement because he had worked more than two weeks. No less distressing was the plight of the little shop which supplied North Dakota farm lads or Illinois miners with suits ordered by mail on measurements taken by the customer himself. That firm made its money by turning out suits with lightning rapidity and hustling them off to wearers who would not be too critical of the fit across the back. Imagine the anguish of the proprietor of that shop as he saw his profits vanish daily with the painstaking labors of an artist tailor who persisted in doing his work as perfectly as he did it in the Viennese shop where he learned his trade. Every perfect garment he turned out meant a dead loss to the shop.

An Expert on the Job

Misfits like that and charges of favoritism were inevitable under the employment system adopted in 1919. The Amalgamated officials were not long in adopting sweeping reforms. Bryce Stewart, head of the Canadian government's

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free employment offices and a Columbia University graduate with an economic training, was brought to Chicago to reorganize the union employment bureau.

Ten months ago he reorganized the exchange, closing the branches and bringing all the jobs and all the workers into a central clearing house at union headquarters. The visitor to the employment office finds chairs neatly placed in rows not unlike those in the old fashioned Sunday school. Every applicant for work receives a number and quietly takes a chair to wait until it is called by one of the interviewers, who is familiar with all the requirements of the clothing industry and particularly with the processes performed by the worker assigned to him. Before the interviewer is a list of jobs open that day. By consultation with the applicant he is able to decide to which factory he will be most useful and which he will find most congenial.

For two weeks the worker and the job are on trial. If the boss does not like the color of Arturo's eyes or the way Cohen sews pockets he can dismiss him and the union will supply another worker. If Arturo or Cohen object to the way in which the boss walks around the shop it is easy to "fire" the boss by quitting. The exchange will try to find a more satisfactory place of employment. But after two weeks there must be some good cause for the two parting company. Then the labor exchange and the union will see that an employe gets a hearing before the arbitration officers if he is dismissed without apparent cause. On the other hand, before a man can get a new job he must show the exchange a certificate from the business agent in charge of his factory stating that he left under proper circumstances.

It Works

This careful check on both worker and job has put an end to the job-taster who was an economic burden on the industry and a nuisance to his fellow workers. It has ended many other abuses. No longer can the Deutelbaum pants factory, on the outskirts of the city, phone for three pants makers and hire only one—causing two workers to waste carfare and a morning when they might have been at work elsewhere—because the boss wanted to make a selection. Mr. Deutelbaum now pays for carfare and time lost by the men he requested but did not want. Nor can a worker take the address of a factory seeking help, walk around the block and show up for another one without giving the job a trial.

In dull times the labor exchange saves time and carfare for the workers. After registration they are not obliged to report daily at the exchange to keep in line for a job. A postal notifies them when a job is at hand.

This union institution passes the acid test of approbation by the employers. The labor managers of the largest clothing factories in the city, after months of experience with the exchange, have expressed their satisfaction with the changes wrought by Stewart. The analysis of Fred A. Krafft, labor manager of Alfred Decker and Cohen is worth citing here:

> It is now possible to make a labor audit of the entire market with respect to the kind of jobs that are periodically available and the kinds of skill required to fill these jobs. The exchange is able to familiarize itself with the quality of help required in our plant and weed out such workers as are not adapted to our processes. The present classification of help with regard to skill, experience and general adaptability to the operations of a particular factory is a big advance. The exchange utilizes the most carefully devised mechanical system known to employment management. It is possible to know just what help is available at a given date or can be transferred from shops working part time. This systematic selection and allocation, generally speaking, assures the manufacturer of a continuous supply of help.

Carrying Seasonal Risks

One of the curses of the clothing industry is its seasonal character. The Amalgamated officials contended that the provision of steady employment was the first duty of the industry and as a corollary they advanced the theory that an unemployment fund should be created out of the proceeds of the industry. It was not until May, 1922, that the union obtained recognition of the right to raise the issue in future negotiations. In May 1923 the employers of the Chicago market joined in the inauguration of unemployment insurance. It is said that this is the first time that workers and employers have jointly maintained unemployment insurance in an industry of such proportions.

The Chicago plan provides that the workers shall contribute 1.5 per cent of their weekly earnings to an unemployment fund and that the employers shall contribute 1.5 per cent of their weekly pay roll to the fund. A board of trustees, jointly selected, will administer the fund which is to be allowed to accumulate until January 1, 1924, when it is estimated it will amount to more than a million dollars. To qualify for unemployment benefits a worker must have been engaged in the industry at least a year and he must have been involuntarily idle for two weeks. The rate of benefit is 40 per cent of full time earnings with $20 a week as the maximum benefit and no one may draw more than five weeks benefit in a year. Provision is to be made for those workers whose distress from unemployment takes the form of part time employment instead of complete idleness. These conservative beginnings are designed to permit the fund to attain large proportions. No benefits will be paid for unemployment directly or indirectly resulting from strikes or other cessation of work in violation of the trade agreement now in force between the manufacturers and the union.

Provision is made for adapting the Chicago fund to any situation which may arise through the establishment of state or federal unemployment insurance. And, should the agreement be terminated, "the trustees shall have the legal power and the duty to hold and dispose of the fund in such manner as will best carry out the spirit and purpose of the agreement, but in any event the fund shall never be used for any purpose which could be construed as enabling, aiding or encouraging either party to carry on labor warfare."

The agreement to maintain the fund expires with the general market agreement on April 30, 1925, both being subject to renewal in the same way. The administration of the business of the unemployment fund in the way of qualifying applicants for benefits will be handled by the labor exchange.

Compared with Cleveland

It is interesting to compare the Chicago plan with the other venture into the field of unemployment insurance in the needle industry—that of the Cleveland garment industry which has been in operation several years. In Cleveland the employers undertake to furnish their workers with 41 weeks work every year. If they fall short of that number of weeks they pay each worker two-thirds of the minimum weekly wage for each week under 41 during which there was

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no employment. To make these payments the employers deposit 10 per cent of the weekly pay roll with the imperial chairman of the industry. The account is liquidated at the end of each year—those employers who have provided 41 weeks work receiving the full sum they contributed; the other receiving what is left after their employes have been indemnified.

The Chicago plan applies the principle of unemployment insurance to an industry employing 40,000 workers while Cleveland has only a few thousand. It calls for a continuous fund which shall attain vast proportions instead of a fund which is liquidated annually. Chicago does not undertake to guarantee any particular number of weeks of employment in a year. And in Chicago, for the first time, employes pay for insurance against involuntary idleness.

Chicago, the most thoroughly organized market in the clothing industry, is looked upon as a laboratory for the entire industry. The labor exchange and the unemployment insurance inaugurated here will be studied by workers and employers in other markets and it is likely that there will be essays into the same field in New York and Rochester, if not in all the clothing centers.

Will these humanizing institutions invade other industries? There is little to show that other industries are ready for them. But then, twelve years ago the Chicago clothing industry was a byword with socially-minded people everywhere!

CARROLL BINDER

Only Herself to Support

AN IDEA, ineradicable as the dandelion, that except in extreme cases women could if they would remain in the home and be supported by their male relatives, still persists over a surprisingly large area. Such discoveries as that of every four workers one is a woman, have little effect upon it. So long as this concept sits undisturbed on the parlor mantles of the unthinking, what chance is there that its companion piece—the idea that women who work have only themselves to support—will be displaced?

A report of the Women's Bureau on The Share of Wage Earning Women in Family Support, paints by means of statistics, investigations, percentages and averages, a picture of what the financial obligations of the working woman really are. The materials for this report are from a survey made in the shoe industry in Manchester, New Hampshire, a compilation of material from the schedules collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and a summary of data in fifty-one miscellaneous reports.

This picture shows the average girl whose father works for wages, as one of three children who grow up in the knowledge that as soon as they are sixteen or a little more, they must go to work. In Manchester, the report says:

> One of the most striking facts about the families studied was the small number of adults who were not wage earners. Except for the women who were wives and mothers the number of non-wage earning adults was negligible. Only 3.7 per cent of the fathers, 3.4 per cent of the sons, and 5 per cent of the daughters . . . were not wage earners. Evidently the families under consideration were not called upon to decide who should go out to work. Everyone worked as a matter of course.

Usually the girl gets a job as soon as the law allows and so long as the combined family income is not more than $500 a year for each member, all that she earns will be turned into the family exchequer. In return she will get not much more than her maintenance and such small sums as will pay for lunches and carfare. Only as the whole family prospers, as the combined income of all five members extends above $2,500, will she have part of her earnings for herself. Nearly two-thirds of the families of five had incomes between $1,200 and $2,400 a year. Since the Bureau of Labor Statistics set $1,370.83 as the cost of living for an average family in Manchester in 1918, and since that standard has not materially changed, it is evident that this average girl need not be hungry nor cold, that she can be decently housed and dressed, but that she has no leeway beyond that. She must from the first help to support other people by just so much as her earnings are in excess of the actual cost of her own survival.

Two possibilities are before her. If she marries, the chances are one to three that she will still have to work to help support her children.

> In 85 per cent of the families of these working wives the husbands earned $1,500 or less during the year and . . . 67.3 per cent of the wives themselves earned less than $800. . . . . The fact that the inclusion of the wives' earnings raises the median of per capita earnings from $438 which is considerably below the median for all families to $641 which is considerably above, leaves little doubt that the earnings of the married women in the majority of these cases were important on keeping up the standard of living for their families.

And it is practically always true that the married woman who works for wages turns all that she earns into the family fund just as her husband does—just as she herself did when she was still a girl living in her father's household.

But suppose that instead of marrying, this average girl of the report remains a part of her father's family. Her father will be the main dependence of the household, her unmarried brothers the next, then herself, and if her mother is a wage worker her money contribution will be the smallest of all. She will contribute a larger proportion of what she earns than her brother, but his money gift will be larger because his wages are higher. This is the period of prosperity of the wage earning woman—a short one because her brothers and sisters marry and their earnings go to their new households, her father grows old and his earnings decrease; he dies; if the household is to keep on she must support it. No law holds her to the task; she usually assumes it voluntarily.

> The fact that a so much greater proportion of women were single makes their assumption of economic obligations to their families a very different matter from that of the men, so many of whom are married and whose responsibilities to the home are definitely recognized and allowed for in the economic system of this country.
>
> . . . . . It is interesting to see for these women who were or had been married, that the problem of dependency is almost wholly that of caring for a younger generation, a problem similar to that of the average man who is head of a family. On the other hand the figures here indicate unquestionably that it is the older generation which constitutes the burden of the single woman, a burden which does not lighten with the years as does that of the younger generation but instead grows heavier as increasing age requires physical as well as financial assistance. . . . . That the young women—girls from 16 to 20—in very much greater proportion than young men, are assuming the fullest extent of responsibility, is an arresting situation. Youths with its desire for independence and self-expression was calling as strongly to these girls, as to their brothers, yet custom and duty and responsibility were calling too, and the girl seems to have responded to the latter more generally than the boy . . . . . The sons are thus assuring themelves of a degree

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of independence and opportunity to strike out for themselves which is denied the daughters whose obligations are often not of their own choosing and who are carrying cares and responsibilities resulting from the tendency of present-day life to leave old age without provision for support.

This report ought to be a death blow to the practice of cutting down the wages of women on the theory that they have no one but themselves to support, but it is amazing how many mortal wounds an able-bodied though unfounded conviction can sustain! It is the facts and tables and percentages that are the cutting edge of this survey, not the gentle recommendation that the wage earning woman

should be accorded the recognition that she is a permanent economic factor in the maintenance of the family unit and that as such her earning power as well as her health is of broad social significance.

But all that can be expected of a government report is that it cut down some particular economic weed; it is for those unhampered by official connections to rub salt on the roots!

The Family Bonus in France

I HAVE already described in these pages the original institution of the family allowance, paid over and above the market wage to French workmen who bear the burden of a family of children and thus incur a charge profitable in the long run to the nation and to the national industry. (See The Survey, Nov. 12, 1921, p. 239). It is estimated that 2,500,000 workmen are now receiving the benefit of this arrangement. Difficulties were encountered in putting the scheme into effect, and it has been recently improved.

The employers who assumed these large outlays expected at the same time to improve the quality of their workmen and to reduce the turnover. These results were not obtained at first, because of some imperfections in the plan. The allowance was too small really to give the worker the sense of being relieved of the greater part of the expense of a large family. Accordingly the rate of the allowance was increased, and was made larger per child in families of three and four than in families of one and two. At Lille, for instance, a father of a family receives today two francs a day for one child, five francs for two, eight francs for three, twelve francs for four, and so on. Besides, a birth premium of 200 francs is given for each baby born, and an allowance of 100 francs a month for the first year to mothers who nurse their babies.

A difficulty arose from the fact that the allowances were paid to the father exclusively, even when the wife also was a factory worker. For it happened that employers of male labor, in spite of the effort to divide the expense between all the employers of the city or region, through the chamber of compensation, had a heavier share than those who employed female or child labor. It was then decided that the various allowances would be paid partly to the man, partly to the woman, and even partly to the children above 14, when they did factory work. In this manner it was possible to make the chambers of compensation work exactly as they were intended.

Some workers attempted to get an undue advantage out of their allowances. For instance, a man who wanted to get his surplus money in the middle of the month would leave after the first fortnight, collect his allowance, and enter another factory. The turnover would thus be increased. Or a woman would get herself hired two months before confinement, and leave after she had received the birth-premium. To obviate these difficulties delays were established in the payment of the allowances.

Such exceptions could not impair the institution. After a few corrections, it came to work smoothly and to make for stability of the working force as well as for better relations between owners and men, especially since many sorts of material and moral help have been instituted by the chambers of compensation, such as medical assistance, house-building on the instalment plan, legal aid, and the like.

The more remote but no less eagerly sought consequence of a higher birth rate is already becoming apparent. Something had to be done in France to counteract the propaganda carried on by a small but dangerous group who would not infrequently approach a young married workman, representing with a sneer how much better off he would be without children, while "frustrating" besides "the damned capitalistic class" in their hope of "enslaving more proletarians." The young workman now knows that as the father of four children he will receive, in addition to his regular wage, 32,000 francs before the fourth child attains his thirteenth year.

Money cannot do all; but it will help to restore healthful family feelings in those who might be deterred from this natural way to happiness by poverty or social restlessness born of a sense of unjust industrial conditions. It is this higher fulfilment that the family allowance and the chambers of compensation are trying to attain, besides the immediate satisfaction of an actual necessity.

CHARLES CESTRE

LABOR EXCHANGES in Germany have been made centers for fighting industrial crises. Dr. Alice Salomon informs us that every district is now obligated to conduct such an exchange, on a basis of cooperation between the district authorities and the elected representatives of labor and the employers. No fee is charged either employed or employer, except in the case of agricultural laborers or servants: one-third the cost of administration is paid from public funds, the other two-thirds through unemployment insurance. Applicants are placed not in order of registration, but in consideration of their special circumstances and the requirements of the position offered. In all trades and professions where a standard wage rate has been established the public exchanges are bound to refuse to fill positions at a lower rate. Where there are strikes or lockouts the exchange must inform applicants of the situation before placing them. Conversely, workmen who are on strike or lockout may be placed elsewhere only if the new employer knows the facts. It is intended that professional sections shall be provided as well as sections devoted to skilled and unskilled labor, but the law allows some elasticity in their establishment. So far these public labor exchanges operate side by side with private bureaus; however, no new commercial bureaus are to be licensed, and when existing licenses lapse, in 1930, only the public employment offices will remain.

ONE cause of permanently increased building costs in the most populated sections of the United States is explained in great detail in a bulletin Lumber Cut in the United States, 1870-1920, recently issued by the Department of Agriculture. Lumber production has increased in eleven western states and decreased in the other thirty-six; this means not only that the main center of lumber production has shifted from the southern pine belt and that "the great consuming centers of the east must haul a heavy percentage of their lumber twice as far as before but also that we are now tapping our last reserve of virgin softwood forest." Price increases over a longer period read almost like statistics about European currency inflation.

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EDUCATION

The Revolt Against Knowledge

IN NORTH CAROLINA, within recent months, tenant farmers threatened to shoot the agents of the state agricultural experiment station who wanted to sprinkle "poison dust" on their cotton fields in an effort to stop the depredations of the boll-weevil. Some time before that, in a neighboring state, the farmers had interfered with the work of other state agents who were engaged in "dipping" cattle and sheep in the fight that is being waged against the ticks. These local objectors insisted that "dipping" cattle was an outrageous caricature of the rite of baptism.

A professor in the University of Tennessee was dropped from the faculty this spring for putting Robinson's The Mind in the Making on one of his reading lists. In Kentucky, a back-country member of the legislature, speaking in support of the bill to outlaw the teaching of evolution in the schools of that state, said, "Mr. President, do I look like I came from a monkey?" Fortunately, a vote on the bill was postponed several days, until the dramatic effect of this speech could be dissipated, when the bill failed by one vote.

In practically all parts of the country, William J. Bryan is the most popular of all lecturers and his most popular address is devoted to a violent attack on what he supposes evolution to be. He is depended upon as the chief oratorical support of the fundamentalists in religion. The chief plank in the platform of the fundamentalists is "Down with Knowledge!"

Physicians and surgeons in small towns, all over the country, are finding themselves in most difficult positions. The medical "fundamentalists" have given the people "what they want." Just as Agassiz never accepted the doctrine of evolution, so most of the old-line doctors look with suspicion on what has come to be called "scientific medicine." The people of the country-side stick to the old leader and the old ways, of course. The younger doctor is looked upon with suspicion; his new methods are treated with derision, even with contempt. A doctor must be called, of course, but a doctor's orders need not be obeyed. "The doctor is called to be the 'goat' if anything goes wrong, that's all!" said one of these men of the new methods.

We need knowledge as never before—and the world is filled with a revolt against knowledge: the most extraordinary phenomenon in the intellectual life of the times

These are a few illustrations of the wide-spread revolt against knowledge which is, probably, the most extraordinary phenomenon in the intellectual life of the times. Nobody knows how far this revolt has gone, or will go. It has been growing for many years, of course. Always, certain groups and certain types of mind have been suspicious of—if not actually hostile to—knowledge, scientific research. The conservative mind, in every sphere of interest, objects to new knowledge. The religious conservative is content with the "faith once delivered to the saints." The political conservative clings to the "doctrines of the fathers." The economic conservative digs himself in behind "the unchangeable laws of nature and human nature." Schoolmen have largely taken their cues from these religious, political and economic conservatives and they have clung to the "good old doctrines and the knowledge that has been tested by experience."

Newspaper editors and reporters have been, with few exceptions, trained in these conservative circles, too. Hence, the new developments in science have been treated rather despicably by the large sections of the press. They have often been used as the basis of ridicule; they have been described by reporters who did not understand and would not take the trouble to learn; they have been completely ignored.

The war helped to develop two distinct trends in popular opinion with respect to knowledge. The scientist himself, because of his contributions to the conduct of the war, came on the one hand to have a better position in public esteem. But knowledge, on the other hand, came to be regarded with a new suspicion. In political fields this is readily understandable. But the "carry-over" into economic and religious fields has been enormous. We seem to have come to this anomalous situation today: The "scientist" is a much more reputable person than ever before; but we should like him even more if he would give over his investigations, reaffirm his allegiance to the old safe and sane knowledge, and live upon his record.

To be sure, scientific investigations have not stopped and they will not stop, or be stopped. But therein lies one of the great difficulties of the present. There is a great gulf now between the frontiers of science and the mental life of the common man. Writers have recently been pointing out that we have been grossly mistaken in calling this the "age of science." It is not unlikely that the mind of the average man or woman is less scientific today than was the case fifty years ago. We punch a button in a wall and have light. Is there anything scientific in punching a button? As a matter of fact, is that act as "scientific" as was the act of the primitive man in rubbing up a fire between two dry sticks? Or striking a spark from a flint with steel? Or lighting a kerosene lamp with a match?

We have been taking too many things for granted. The progress of "scientific" appliances may easily be accompanied by a regress in the intellectual activities of the masses of men. A world fitted up with a complete equipment of "scientific" machines might very well become the home of a race of morons, with no duty more arduous or intellectual than that of pushing buttons in the walls; provided, of course, a few creative, engineering minds were conserved to care for the machines and keep them in running order. Such an outcome may be "scientific," in one sense; but the

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world may well pray to be delivered from such science.

The solution of this problem lies not, however, in the direction of banning scientific investigation. Rather it lies in the direction of making not merely scientific appliances, but the scientific mind, the possession of all men.

At this point we come upon the chief stumbling block of all. The school man says that this cannot be done: he can prove by his intelligence tests that but a very small percentage of the population can comprehend "science." The politician does not want this result: men and women are much more amenable to political controls if they are not too intelligent. The industrial leader does not want this outcome: there are dreary and dirty tasks to be done in this world, and we must have a "supply of unskilled labor." The religionist does not want men to have too much education: he fears the effects of "science, falsely so called" on church attendance. Even the "scientist" is almost convinced that his job requires a special type of mind, to which most men must not expect to aspire. That is to say, we are face to face with a world problem, and we refuse to examine the one probable way out.

It is practically difficult and almost useless to try to allocate the blame for the situation in which we find ourselves. Each of the conservative groups has been blamed in turn: religionists, politicians, industrialists, schoolmen. But no one of these groups can go very far ahead, alone. The race must, after a fashion, lift itself on all sides at once; it must raise itself by its own boot-straps.

But if responsibility is to be placed anywhere in particular, it must inevitably fall upon the scientists, and after them, the schoolmen. Human beings, their lives rooted in habit and custom, have always been afraid of anything new. Scientists, and scientists alone, know this, and have known it: yet these same scientists keep on piling up new things, making new discoveries, developing new theories, without taking the trouble to explain or commend these new developments to the minds of the race. They have ignored the psychological fact that minds cannot and will not follow save as they are intrigued; and that a mind that does not follow is likely, soon or late, to revolt, turn back and build up defences against all following, all progress. These are facts quite as important as those found in physical or chemical laboratories.

But the scientist, so called, may claim that it is no part of his job to get the public to accept his methods, his theories or his results. In that case, if he knows anything at all about history, he need not be surprised to find that the public has failed to accept either his methods or his theories, even though it may accept some of his results, at least those that appear in the form of machines. He may, instead, claim that it is the duty of the schools to see to it that the public, at least the rising generation, shall learn to "think scientifically."

But, in placing responsibility upon the schools, he must not ignore two fundamentals. First, the schools cannot get far ahead of the habit and custom of the community. Second, studying about buttons in the wall, or reciting lessons in so-called scientific text-books, may be the very worst of all possible ways of developing the scientific mind in the children of the schools.

Here is the greatest of all scientific tasks, today: How shall science get itself accepted by the race of men? The "revolt against knowledge," as old as the story of knowledge, has in this day become acute, because science is now taking unto itself all the provinces of life. Ignorance, bigotry, greed, intolerance, war: these stand in the way of human well-being and happiness. With the best goodwill in the world, we shall make little progress against these arch-enemies of the race without a growing knowledge. We are blocked at every point without more knowledge. Religion needs new knowledge; the industrial world needs more knowledge; our political life needs more understanding; morality needs new knowledge; education is at present little but the repetition of pious sentimentalities: we are blocked at every point. We need knowledge as never before—and the world is filled with a revolt against knowledge!

J. K. H.

Workers' Education that Works

WORKERS' education in the United States has undergone during the last few years a period of trial and error and is only now beginning to find its most congenial expression. Two things condition the movement in any country, the general educational structure and the nature and development of the labor movement. Because both these conditions differ widely in England and America, it is probable that similar differences will appear in workers' education. Add to this the variety of cultures, the different stages of development among trades unions and the still greater differences of environment among the states and the variation in type naturally follows.

Broadly speaking, there are three main divisions in type: Where the initiative comes from an organized labor group, as with the clothing workers or garment workers; where the initiative comes from outside as in the Amherst classes, the Bryn Mawr Summer School or the special labor department of the extension division of the University of California; where there is joint initiative as in the labor colleges which have sprung up in various cities. Of the first two kinds much has been written, perhaps more than the actual educational work deserves. These experiments are all among the more permanent examples of workers' education, whereas the labor colleges have, with one exception, had stormy and varied careers. That exception is Denver, Colorado, whose first summer school has recently ended with no small amount of successful significance.

The labor colleges in Boston, Philadelphia, Washington, Pittsburgh, Minneapolis, San Francisco and Chicago, have all had checkered careers and at the present time are in the shade. The reasons for this decline vary in each case. Sometimes the blast of officialism has withered the young growth, sometimes the higher authorities have weighed heavily on it from outside, sometimes a false and biased teaching, and often an indifferent and apathetic rank and file, have caused the decay, or, again, a false and shallow enthusiasm has come to a sudden and inglorious end. But in one and all cases there is something radically wrong at the heart of the movement which compels revaluation and reconsideration. Perhaps some of the facts relating to the movement in Denver will illustrate the whole subject.

The doctrine of the trinity, as in so many cases, proves itself in Denver. The movement divides itself into three phases and centers round one man. The phases are the Denver Open Forum, the Labor College and the Summer

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School; the man is Dr. George Lackland of the Methodist Church, a friend of labor. While these phases are technically unconnected and the man himself would disavow responsibility, yet the connection is obvious to the most casual observer.

The Denver Open Forum

The Open Forum is a civic concern representing everybody of interest in the city, except secret societies. Such a diversity as the American Legion, business and women's clubs, preachers of every sect, presidents of local colleges, outstanding employers, the governor, the mayor, the press, and delegates from every trades union comprise the general committee, while Dr. Lackland and eight others form an executive committee.

Every kind of speaker and subject has found expression: there is only one condition and that is free speech and open questions. The audience is as varied as the city and calibre of questions asked is undoubtedly high. The meetings are held in Dr. Lackland's church by special arrangement and on payment of a small fee. There is little doubt that a spirit of tolerance and a generous outlook on questions of the day have been bred week by week at these forums. One example attributed to its fair spirit was the sanctioning of a sum of money to the children and dependents of shopmen on strike.

The Labor College

The Denver Labor College is a monument to Rev. and Mrs. Webber, who organized it by untiring energy three years ago. Since then Dr. Lackland has become its president and its membership has grown from fifty to a hundred and fifty students. It meets for two semesters of eight weeks each and on two nights per week: classes are held in public speaking, economic problems, English, parliamentary law, current events, labor law, plan reading, psychology, economic history, foreign history and cooperation. After classes which run from 7:45 P. M. to 9:00 P. M., an hour's forum is held at which more general and current topics are discussed. The faculty are all college men and the majority members of some college faculty: while the school is operated by a board of thirty directors, five from the faculty, five officers, ten from the student body, five from the Central Labor Council and five from the building trades council. These are the facts but it is necessary to breathe more life into them.

First and foremost, there is a man permanently on the work, who has won the confidence of workers particularly and most thinkers generally, a man of abounding energy and personality who brings inspiration into leadership. Then there are permanent buildings in which classes are held and which serve as a meeting place: these are in the wing of the Community Church, of which Dr. Lackland is pastor. Thirdly, there is a happy cooperation betweeen members of the teaching staff and the various interests involved in running the college: the resultant is a group of men and women dedicated to education in its fullest and largest sense.

It should be added that there is in Denver a unique piece of education called the Opportunity School, whose aim is to serve the interests of those who find attendance at ordinary schools inconvenient. This is under the public school system and meets the needs of children and adults of all kinds. It operates largely in the vocational field but flexibility and adaptation are the essential part of its make-up.

The presence of these two institutions in the same town would seem to imply that each is serving a distinctive need. What then is the vital difference? The Labor College, led by experienced tutors, is dealing with those more advanced subjects which require speculative thought and deeper knowledge. The problems of industrial society, psychology and ethics are here discussed by a group who have come together for that very purpose. This is indeed "an effort of the soul to find a true expression or interpretation of experience and to find it not alone but with the help of fellow students." To such discussions adult members bring their working experience and conditions and such training as they may have obtained at night-schools, Y. M. C. A. courses, Opportunity Schools which are provided from above, to ease the wheels of industry. There is no inherent antagonism.

Any summary of the difference must take into account the voluntary nature, the democratic government, the choice of subject and teacher, the method of education and above all the animating spirit: add to this that the classes are adult and primarily for wage earners and the essential parts of a labor college become clearer.

The Farmer Labor Summer School

The third expression of the movement was a Farmer-Labor Summer School, the first of its kind, held for one week in the mountains this summer. Although sponsored by the Denver Labor College, it was held under the joint auspices of the State Federation of Labor and the Denver Trades and Labor Assembly. The result was a registration of over a hundred while sixty-three were present the entire week. There were members of the Non-Partisan League, Farmers' Union, many trades unions, Y. W. C. A., teachers and undergraduates, with representatives from Sweden, Switzerland and England. In the case of the carpenters, painters, and typographical unions, expenses were defrayed by the unions themselves. After the school one delegate said he would willingly refund his expenses if the union did not think it worth while. Many, however, gave up a week of work and with farmers, a week of harvesting, to attend the school.

An inspirational hour led off the day when Dr. Lackland talked on some character from literature or fiction. The general topic of the week was progress in the Nineteenth Century, considered from every phase, and classes were devoted mainly to that study. Recreation consumed the afternoon and the evening was given over to an open forum on some current problem. In these sessions the governor of the state and other outside speakers were given a critical and sympathetic audience. The subjects included The Railroad Problem, Foreign Affairs, The Color Question, The Biological Basis of Democracy, Juvenile Delinquency, and so forth. It is obvious that a week is insufficient for continuous study, but the chief advantages were in stimulating thought, encouraging work and above all insisting on the importance of method. The mingling of farmer and labor groups, studying each others' problems, resulted in fruitful plans for closer cooperation and exchange of ideas. Indeed the keynote of the week was cooperation. It is hard to refrain at this point from quoting a local teacher at the conference:

> Consideration of ways and means for directing the present day economic forces into channels of social service occupied the conference. . . . [He then refers to Dr. Lackland.] To me the

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man and the idea were one and the same. I witnessed the man and the idea take possession of the souls of the group. The idea was that such a group could be assembled and that, being assembled, the individuals would each contribute to the organization of the idea into "a going concern." That appeared to me to be the big thing. The joint product of the contributors is the thing to consider. To have been a member of the conference was a sufficient contribution and a fortunate experience—a landmark in life.

This is one of many testimonies and demands no comment.

Out of the summer school grew three significant things. A permanent committee for next year was formed, representing all groups present; its chairman is Dr. Lackland. One daughter college is in process of formation at a smaller and neighboring town. It is intended to employ a full-time secretary for workers' education in the state of Colorado, who will take over the charge from the voluntary pioneers.

The sign of growth is the sign of life and creation. Broad-based upon the labor movement, under its control and financed from its coffers, recognizing leadership where it is unselfish, venturesome in outlook with some of the freshness of the environment, Denver may be blazing a trail for workers' education in America. It has steered between politics and propaganda because it is searching for truth first.

KENNETH LINDSAY

NEGRO COLLEGE WOMEN of America have organized a National Association of Negro College Women, including in its numbers graduates from Oberlin, Smith, Cornell, Wellesley, Radcliffe, Ohio State, Michigan, Pennsylvania and the University of Chicago, as well as graduates of the best known Negro schools. The purpose of the association is primarily educational. In the North, effort will be directed toward helping to keep Negro children in school for longer periods than is now the general rule; and in the South the association will work for better educational facilities for Negroes. The address of the association will be 1815 Thirteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

FOLLOWING the disclosure of a number of fatal accidents in connection with class rushes at Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., the authorities of the university have abolished all such events for the future. Each faculty of the university has been asked to pass a rule prohibiting not only hazing (long under the ban), but also class rushes, including all efforts by the members of one class to interfere with the gatherings or meetings of another class, and all attempts to interfere with the liberty of others by force. Students must take a pledge not only to abstain from hazing but also from class rushes and all similar activities. Appeals are being made to the teachers and the students and to all student organizations to develop anti-class rush sentiment on the campus. Efforts are to be directed to the development of a comprehensive system of organized inter-class athletics, consisting of wrestling, boxing, football, swimming, track, and baseball, conducted on the basis of inter-class competition, in which every male student will be encouraged to participate.

AN APPROPRIATION of $500,000 to construct and equip an addition to the medical and dental school at Howard University, the only college in the country (with one exception) where colored physicians and dentists are graduated, will be requested of Congress at its coming session by Secretary Work. Recent investigations show that the colored population of the nation has increased to nearly 12,000,000 and that there is only one colored physician to 3,194 persons, while the white race has a physician to every 553 citizens. The disparity is even greater in the proportion of white and colored dentists. There is one white dentist to every 2,070 white people in the United States, while there is but one colored dentist to every 20,500 colored persons. Other figures reveal the fact that only a very meager number of colored doctors and dentists are completing the course every year at Howard University, the average number of physicians graduating for the past ten years being 20 while the number of dentists averaged 22. Responsibility for the situation is attributed not to the disinclination of colored youths to study medicine and dentistry and adopt them as professions but to the deplorable limitation of the capacity of colored educational institutions. During the fall term of Howard University there were 165 applicants for admission to its medical school. Out of this number but 50 could be admitted to take the course because of the inadequacy of laboratory space.

MORE PSYCHOLOGY, sociology, economics and political science for ministers is the theme of a report discussed by the Unitarian Laymen's League at the annual convention in New Haven, September 11-16. The report was the work of laymen, including attorneys, university professors, manufacturers and others. The report says: "We are convinced that any theological training given by any school should be in conjunction with courses given in universities of the highest type; that the main stress should be laid upon the study of sociology, political economy, political science, psychology and world history; and that the so-called Biblical-theological training should supplement this work rather than make work of this nature supplement the Biblical-theological training. In other words, the subjects used for a minister's training should come out of the needs of the day rather than from the conventional theological theories which the church has inherited." In stating the qualifications of a minister with reference to the needs of the laymen, the committee places first the ability to "understand the problems which confront laymen in the various daily walks of life" and "to advise and guide men in their human relations and in their religious aspirations." They place the ability to preach second, and give third place to the capacity to organize a parish and to systematize his work.

FEW COLLEGES in America seem to be interested in the problems of labor, or in labor economics, according to a statement recently made public by the Institute of Public Service, New York City. The Institute sums up the situation in the following terms: Of nearly 700 colleges and professional schools for both men and women, over 500 do not advertise any attention whatever to labor problems. The subject is almost unknown in the colleges which train teachers and is not even part of the model course of study for teacher-training schools which is now sweeping the country under the leadership of the Carnegie Foundation. In fact, this model course neither mentions nor hints at training that will help teachers study and think straight about strikes, child labor, prevention of business cycles, proper length of the working day, protection of women and children in industry, labor education and labor civics. But New York state has a new course in labor civics for the older grammar grades and the first year of high school. Of this the Institute says: Where this syllabus is properly taught, children will learn the meaning of local and national unions among workers and employers; open and closed shops, strikes, lockouts, black lists; consumers' boycotts; workmen's compensation; unemployment insurance such as England is now paying to a million and a quarter; arbitration in disputes; shop committees; shop schools; collective bargaining; ways to promote healthful conditions in workshops; advantages and disadvantages of different kinds of life work.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Houses of Fellowship

THE NEIGHBORHOOD IN NATION BUILDING, *by Robert A. Woods. Houghton Mifflin Co. 348 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. WOODS has seen deeply and clearly into the life of the neighborhood and the problems of community organization and social work. Social work expressed in community organization, despite the fact that it has been the subject of so much thought, study and investigation, is still largely an uncharted sea where there are cross currents, dangerous shoals and few lighthouses. Its shores are strewn as thick with wrecks and skeletons of social schemes as the shores of the island where the sirens sang were strewn with the skeletons of men. Mr. Wood is a seasoned pilot and he sails safely between a whole series of Scyllae and Charybdes, between loyalties that are too small and those that are too vague; between narrow provincialism and the indifference of cosmopolitanism; between theoretical generalities and hopes based on a snappy office routine. He listens to no siren voice of panaceas. And all this he is able to do because he seems to have found a true course in the deepest and strongest current that flows in human life, the desire for better human relationships, and he shows the way in which a better neighborhood and community life can be the means of approaching this end.

The book is composed of a series of essays, addresses and studies covering a period of thirty years. It is interesting and even astonishing to see the way in which the fine insights in the earlier years have become the indubitable achievements of the later period. Some readers may consider, however, that the chapters dealing with standards set by social work in the war are perhaps too optimistic. While it is impossible to give more than a hint in this brief review of the contents of the book, a few of the leading tendencies may be noted. One of them is a faith in, and an understanding of, plain people.

> In an enterprise of the people's own, you find them under a kind of momentum which can never be so well artificially aroused.

Mr. Woods sees clearly the difficulties in the manifold occupations of a settlement or a neighborhood house. He makes clear the diffierence between their work and that of a purely charitable society.

> The distinction [between the settlement and philanthropy] is important because popular interest in superficial aspects of settlement work has led to the use of settlements as a means of promoting a variety of charitable and missionary ends. There is a danger that the settlement motive will be estimated like a pack horse according to the amount of freight which it can carry. Settlements stand not only for relief but for fellowship.

Although the illustrations of the life in a neighborhood are most frequently drawn from the experience of a settlement worker, there is no narrowing down of human experience to the form of life in any one institution. There is, however, a steady tendency to keep in mind actual human experience—never the experience of the imaginary beings who appear nowhere save in the reports or programs of social institutions. Mr. Woods is trying to indicate the way to get good human experience.

The same principles that have been worked out at South End House and in many other settlements Mr. Woods believes can be applied in country villages, and in his fifth and sixth chapters he deals with this application.

The strong ethical note of the volume can be found on many pages but it is particularly to be noted in the chapter on Ethical Construction as a Preparation for Ethical Instruction, where he says,

> It is in the field of things craved and striven for instinctively and spontaneously that the educator's best opportunity lies. A common dynamic basis for personal interests and strivings is essential to that insight and influence which can come at the heart of things. The building up through vital participation, step by step, of all around moralized experience must be the beginning and the end of social service, and must more and more be seen to be the largest element in conscious and determinate moral education. The whole scheme of work for neighborhood improvement in our cities, where the neighborhood social structure and function is to a greater or less extent broken down, has to do with establishing a scientific method for reconstituting the channels of local ethical relationships.

When Mr. Woods deals with some of the larger aspects of what the settlement has accomplished we find this sentence, which in a way sums up the case for social and community work:

> The whole underlying note of settlement work in the United States has been the patient, systematic training of the rank and file of the people from childhood up for collective action toward the common good.

It is impossible to give further quotations, but especially the chapter on The Neighborhood in Social Reconstruction should be emphasized, as more than any other, perhaps, it gives Mr. Woods' confession of faith.

These few sentences, chosen perhaps ill advisedly, cannot give an adequate account of the worth of this volume which will for a long time be a guide to those who believe national peace lies through the construction of better neighborhoods. This is a companion book to The Settlement Horizon by Mr. Woods and Mr. Kennedy which has just been published by the Russell Sage Foundation. The two volumes admirably supplement each other and will be an important part of the literature which will influence the work of those who genuinely, perhaps passionately, care for the welfare of cities and nations.

JOHN L. ELLIOTT

History as Soothing Syrup

BRITISH AND CONTINENTAL LABOUR POLICY (*The political labour movement and labor legislation in Great Britain, France and the Scandinavian Countries* 1900-1922), *by B. G. de Montgomery. E. P. Dutton & Co. 575 pp. Price $8.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AN historical work that treats so many controversial questions as those which have made up the history of labor policy in the twentieth century runs the danger of yielding to the temptation of *ex parte* pronouncements. In his study of social and economic conditions, the socialist, syndicalist and labor movements and parties of France, Sweden, Norway and Great Britain, Bo-Gabriel de Montgomery has yielded purposely to this temptation. In the hope that the book "may thereby remove even to a small degree the spirit of class feeling—which is so detrimental to all classes of society and so unworthy of civilization" he feels called upon gently to chide the forces about which he writes from time to time and to pour the facts optimistically into the mold of his hopes.

His chidings are almost sufficiently quantitative to take his work out of the field of history into that of criticism where it would be judged more harshly than it need be as a work of history. Yet they are sufficiently out of place against the elaborately studied factual background of the book to detract considerably from its value. For example, after pointing out the growth of the political and economic aims of labor, he jumps definitely to one side and decries it:

> But the rapid growth in the power of organized Labour has been a source of danger in more ways than one. . . . The danger of socialist and syndicalist propaganda has increased in proportion to the development of the labour organizations. The following words of the European Commission of the U. S. A. Industrial Conference Board are worthy of consideration: "The preaching of socialistic doctrines, persistent, aggressive, irresponsible, for selfish purposes, is having its effect upon the organized workers. The forces which, undirected or wrongly directed, have brought the

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industries of Great Britain to such a critical condition, should not, by our careless passiveness, be permitted to produce the same effect upon our own."

Not quite able to forget so easily as de Montgomery that there was both a war and a Lloyd George government, one becomes critical of an author who seems so uncritically acceptant.

In the discussion of why the Labour Party in Great Britain has not done better than it has, we are treated to two ingenuous reasons. One is that a large number of workmen generally vote in favor of Tory and Liberal candidates. Another is that "it is characteristic of the present social system in Great Britain that there is no real difficulty for any man or woman of ability of however humble an origin, to rise from one social class to another. The road to the highest offices and to the most exalted social positions is open to every citizen . . . ."

So we are not surprised to be told that it is only a question of time till the socialists in all countries must recognize:

Firstly, that privately owned capital is indispensable for high efficiency of production and for the maintenance of output in proportion to the increase of the population; and secondly, that adequate representation of the workers in Parliament will safeguard sufficiently the interests of the workers. . . . After all, high efficiency of production is the most important problem the workers have to face. . . .

Now it is just possible that such inconsecutive comment will allay the spirit of class feeling. But be that as it may, it is not impressive historical reasoning, and there is a great bit of it scattered about.

The book contains a wealth of interesting fact. In addition to the political organization of labor, the legal position of trade unions, conciliation and arbitration, the minimum wage, legal regulation of the hours of labor, unemployment, joint industrial organization and nationalization in the four countries are all described with much detail, although not with any especial brilliance. The book will probably be read with pleasure by those who want to believe that the interests of the workers, after all is said and done, are identical with those of their employers. Here are facts which are forced to prove it.

H. S. RAUSHENBUSH

The Dance of Life

THE DANCE OF LIFE, *by Havelock Ellis. Houghton Mifflin Co. 377 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE TITLE chosen by Havelock Ellis for his latest book is not as flippant or irrelevant as one of his critics assumes; it is obviously intended as a contrast to the well known imagery of the Dance of Death in the sixteenth century and before, symbol of the puritan spirit of the Reformation which in turn gave rise to Kant's conception of duty and much else in modern philosophy at which the author tilts his lance in these pages.

A new book by Havelock Ellis always is an event for the student of social life. His interpretations have a way of going to the root of things; and his knowledge, both of literature and of current events, is an ever fresh surprise. True, sometimes this learning gets into the way of clear exposition —as for instance in some sections of this book in which the quotations from authors known and unknown fairly fall over each other, interspersed as they are with the tiresome trick of appealing to authority by frequent references of the "as so and so would have said" kind. Yet such is the appositeness of all the citations, the charm of the author's style and the freshness of his reasoning that, in spite of its faults—among which must be reckoned also a lacking unity of treatment due to the fact that it was written over many years—The Dance of Life is a most enjoyable contribution to social philosophy.

Briefly his thesis is that the way out of the conflict of modern life is through the cultivation of the artistic—as against the acquisitive or possessive—side of mentality, with its two branches, the aesthetic or contemplative and the creative or active. Thus the book might be called a re-valuation of some of the essential social forces in our time in terms of art. Obviously, a complete realization of such a plan would have taken the author far behind the opportunities and abilities of the essayist; in fact he has not attempted the construction of a textbook, merely applied his theory to some themes in which he is especially interested. So he starts out with a chapter on The Art of Dancing, leaving the metaphysicians on one side to discover anew its significance for the Greek and other cultures. The Art of Thinking with him becomes a re-interpretation of the history of science, the Art of Writing an attack on the formalists, the Art of Religion an exposition of the new understanding in which pragmatism and mysticism no longer remain opposites, the Art of Morals a courageous return to the attitude of the Jesuits, so misconstructed and misrepresented in modern times. Mr. Ellis, especially in the chapter on Religion, says many things in which only a small minority of thoughtful readers are likely to agree, yet we can recall no other book of the year so stimulating, constructive and, on the whole, right in interpreting the general spiritual trend of our time.

Ten Books for Health Workers

FEEDING, DIET AND GENERAL CARE OF CHILDREN, *by Albert J. Bell, M.D. F. A. Davis Co. 276 pp. Illustrated. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

FOOD, HEALTH AND GROWTH, *by L. Emmett Holt, M.D. Macmillan Co. 275 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

WHAT TO EAT IN HEALTH AND DISEASE, *by Benjamin Harrow, Ph.D. E. P. Dutton & Co. 203 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

TEETH, DIET AND HEALTH, *by Kurt H. Thoma, D.M.D. Century Co. 226 pp. Illustrated. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

REST AND OTHER THINGS, *by Allen Krause, M.D. Williams & Wilkins Co. 150 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

ENVIRONMENT AND RESISTANCE IN TUBERCULOSIS, *by Allen Krause, M.D. Williams & Wilkins Co. 137 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

TUBERCULOSIS AND THE COMMUNITY, *by John B. Hawes, M.D. Lea & Febiger. 168 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

RULES FOR RECOVERY FROM PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS, *by Lawrason Brown, M.D. Lea & Febiger. 217 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

HOW WE RESIST DISEASE, *by Jean Broadhurst, Ph.D. J. B. Lippincott Co. 248 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

BODY MECHANICS AND HEALTH, *by Leah C. Thomas and Joel E. Goldthwait, M.D. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 112 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

"DOCTORS write prescriptions in Latin," shouted a disgruntled street orator from his soap box recently as a member of The Survey staff passed by. "What's Latin? Latin's a language that's not been used since a guy named Julius Cæsar made love to a dame named Cleopatra in the shadows of the pyramids while crossing the Rubicon on a moonlight night."

The implied criticism of the doctor is as inaccurate as the definition of Latin. Unless he is addressing his professional colleagues, the modern physician is endeavoring with increasing earnestness to tell laymen in plain language the what and why of health and disease. The tide of popular interest in food, and especially the often-invoked vitamines, finds professional interpretation which is none the less scientific because the general reader can understand it. Vitamines and other new principles of nutrition, especially with reference to teeth, have been incorporated into the clear and comprehensive manual for mothers and nurses on the Feeding, Diet and General Care of Children, by Albert J. Bell, M. D., Associate Professor of Pediatrics at the University of Cincinnati. Food, Health and Growth is the title of the volume which brings together the Lane Lectures delivered by Dr. L. Emmett Holt a year ago at the Medical School of Leland Stanford University. Here the authority for a quarter of a century on the care and feeding of children interprets for the nutrition worker and the general reader the result of the research of the last few years. A chapter on Practical Measures for Improving the Nutrition of Children, with special reference to health education, focuses the scientific data of the previous chapters in a field which has owed so much of its notable recent advance to the leadership of Dr. Holt through the Child Health Organization. What to Eat in Health and Disease, by Benjamin Harrow, associate in physiological chemistry of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, gives in more popular form a resumé of our knowledge of foods and feeding, and its application to different classes of persons, in the crisp and interesting style of the author's previous books on Vitamines and Glands in Health and Disease. The special role of nutrition in providing and maintaining a healthy set of teeth, and of teeth in their importance to health in general, is the subject of a volume for health workers, parents, and others, Teeth, Diet and Health, by Kurt H. Thoma, Assistant Professor of Oral Pathology in the Harvard University Dental School.

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Different phases of tuberculosis and its treatment form the subject of another group of books by physicians, primarily for those who are not physicians. Dr. Allen Krause's noteworthy articles in the Journal of the Outdoor Life have been made available in book form, in response to widespread demand, in two volumes entitled Rest and Other Things, and Environment and Resistance in Tuberculosis. Tuberculosis and the Community, by Dr. John B. Dawes of the Massachusetts General Hospital and Harvard Medical School discusses the social aspects of the disease and its cure and prevention. A fourth and revised edition of Dr. Lawrason Brown's Rules for Recovery from Pulmonary Tuberculosis, a layman's handbook of treatment, has also just been issued.

Of particular interest to nurses and students, but with important material for other health workers, is a recent text on How We Resist Disease, An Introduction to Immunity, by Jean Broadhurst of the faculty of Teachers' College. Study suggestions, a glossary, and list of references add to its value for teaching work. Body Mechanics and Health, by Leah C. Thomas and Joel E. Goldthwait, M. D., gives for those charged with the physical education of children the results of the authors' observation and experience in directing the physical training in a school system of two thousand pupils.

The Too-Human Family

THE FAMILY AND ITS MEMBERS, *by Anna Garlin Spencer. J. B. Lippincott Co. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"THE thing of all others to be avoided is the outgrown idea that heavenly magic attends completely to these matters. It is earthly wisdom and unselfishness and good intent that are needed in this as in all great decisions of life." Such is the spirit and attitude of this book. It fulfils the announced intention of the author to begin where other studies of the family have left off and to analyze in a rational and human way the personal and ethical problems which inhere in family relationships as they exist today.

Those who have had the duty of organizing for teaching purposes the voluminous literature on marriage and the family in all their many aspects, will recognize the need of some aid in making the transition from abstruse sociological generalizations to some considerations which mesh with the everyday life of their students. Unless there is such a connection the ordinary student saves the generalization only for academic uses and oscillates between custom and impulse in his behavior. As a teacher and lecturer of wide experience Mrs. Spencer has learned how to work up historical and sociological information into something so patently usable that few students could resist it. Her wide knowledge of both urban and rural conditions gives body to the texture of the book. Her frankness gives it strength.

A clean and vigorous presentation is made still more engaging by bits of humor in appropriate places. In the discussion of the historical background of fatherhood one finds this:

> When the human male did learn that he was a father, as his mate was a mother, it seems to have mentally intoxicated him, and led the way to many social vagaries. The grotesque comedy of the couvade, which proved a tragedy so often for the poor mother, compelled by custom to rise in her weakness and even neglect her new-born baby, in order to do double work and to tempt the appetite of her lord after his make-believe pangs of childbirth, was one sign that primitive consciousness found the new knowledge of double parentage very exciting.

Besides bibliographies, each chapter has a full topical outline in the table of contents and a list of questions to suggest further study.

Papini's Life of Christ

THE LIFE OF CHRIST, *by Giovanni Papini. Translated by Dorothy Canfield Fisher. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 416 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN an age that on the whole takes its religion easily, Giovanni Papini's militant zeal is a picturesque anachronism, in its earlier phase of ardent atheism quite as much as in the present one of ardent faith, of which his Life of Christ, ably translated by Dorothy Canfield Fisher, is the copious expression. There is a further picturesqueness in the fact that though Papini is a thinker and philosopher, a modern human being, and though the book came out of his very modern suffering for a sick world, he makes no cautious pretensions to a so-called modern approach to the old story of the Life of Christ. He feels no pressure to define his faith as an individual; he is content to be an ordinary son of the ancient Roman Church. He is not theological, or scientific, or detached and scholarly. He takes the story of Christ whole, content to let its tested spiritual truth stand as the whole truth.

The book, in the actual reading, is very long, a restless succession of homilies, narrative passages, lyric declarations of faith, glowing expansions of the parable and miracle stories. Papini is a literary man and an artist; the artistic and the religious passions work together for the fullest, most moving expression. There are many passages of power and beauty—and many others in which the style, crowded, driven, protesting, becomes a wearying assault upon the nerves. And again, beautiful though his transcriptions are of such stories as the Prodigal Son, it is impossible not to remember, reading them, that those stories have found their perfect form in the King James version of the Bible.

In the end, as in the beginning, it is the man Papini, his burning simple faith, his apostolic zeal to bear witness, his almost violent vitality, that claim the interest and stir the emotions. But theoretically fine though such an approach may be, if the point is the persuasive power over us of the life of Christ, it is left to wonder whether we are not, after all, for better or for worse, too modern to know what to do with quite so much simplicity.

The Hazard of Childhood

A MOTHER'S LETTER TO A SCHOOLMASTER, *with an Introduction by James Harvey Robinson. Alfred A. Knopf. 283 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE AMERICAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, *by John Louis Horn. The Century Education Series. The Century Co. 422 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

MODERN METHODS AND THE ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM, *by Claude A. Phillips, Ph.D. The Century Education Series. The Century Co. 389 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE NEW PSYCHOLOGY AND THE PARENT, *by H. Crichton Miller, M.A., M.D. Thomas Seltzer. 225 pp. Price $1.60 postpaid of The Survey.*

A BOOK on education with an introduction by James Harvey Robinson, and bearing on its jacket the warm endorsement of John Dewey, ought to prove the last word in educational wisdom. Certainly there is much to inspire and much to ponder upon in the Letters of a Mother to a Schoolmaster. Under the transparent device of defending herself against principal and truant officer for not sending her little son Peter, aged seven, to school, the writer launches a brilliant and telling attack upon the existing educational order, and then proceeds to outline a scheme for a substitute school or Children's Community, where learning or "finding out" is a natural process along ways of pleasantness and paths of purpose. The new school would be a replica of the home and of those immediate available surrounding sources of supply and communication which unite the home and the neighborhood with the whole world. In place of school-rooms and text-books there would be shops where things are made, others where they are sold, studios, a museum, a music room, a theater, and so on—a miniature community. One is certain that the child who is educated in such a community will come out a well organized, highly "socialized" and efficient citizen, one well able to cope with the mechanical complexities of present day society.

Possibly that is what we need. There is much talk by social philosophers these days of the fact that our social machinery has grown faster than our means of control. Perhaps by starting early, by introducing children very young to miniature adult communities with all their paraphernalia and multiform activities, we can turn out a hardy race of socialized robots who will harness this tremendous machine to vast social uses. We may of course have to lose childhood as we know it. Peter by two could read, by two and a half was possessed of a speaking vocabulary of 2500 words, and by seven was discoursing wisely with his mother about democracy and its implications, and outlining the revolutionary system of education his mother has elaborated! But possibly, childhood as we know it—lawless, half-savage, teeming with unknown possibilities, wholly ex-

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quisite of itself—is a highly wasted period. But I doubt it!

This does not mean that the schoolmaster is right. One has only to read a book or two by professional schoolmen to realize anew the dreary futility of so much of what passes for educational lore. Two such books are those by Professor Horn, the American Elementary School, and by Dr. C. A. Phillips, Modern Methods and the Elementary Curriculum. Perhaps it is the penalty we pay for attempting to educate children by millions that we must devote most of our energies to problems of administration and procedure and to measuring the product, before we know best what we should measure. Of course, since we cannot scrap our educational machinery, we had better go on trying to perfect it, for as Dr. Hart said recently, machines must be for something!

From this viewpont, in summarizing what is workable in recent school procedure and practice, Professor Horn has written a useful book. His emphasis on the need for differentiated education is well made; highly endowed children in our public schools have been neglected, he asserts—and his suggestion is interesting that the schools train the emotions as well as the intellect.

The project method of teaching is ably presented by Dr. Phillips, who gives concrete suggestions under each subject, and also refers to the various standard scales for measuring the work done. The book is written for teacher-training schools and aims to analyse for them the more generally accepted conclusions affecting the elementary course of study. The question is not even raised that "curriculum" and "course of study" may not be the means for education at all, but only for schooling—quite a different matter.

The hope of a new order, however, says Dr. Miller, in his New Psychology and the Parent, lies not with the school, but can come through one channel only, and that is new parenthood. The present generation of parents may be able to readjust or improve its outlook, but the real hope lies in the parents of the next generation. "So the child we are bringing up today, we ought to be bringing up—not with a view to his being a doctor, because his father was a doctor, or his taking orders because his grandfather was a dean—but with the bigger aim that he should be a good parent, a better parent than his own."

For this task, Dr. Miller asserts, a knowledge of the New Psychology is necessary, not to help parents to know their children, but to know themselves. There are numerous helpful suggestions in the book, perhaps the best being the warning that parents guard against holding their children back from their natural development from one stage to another. What these stages are is briefly given for boys and girls separately. In his attempt to be non-technical and simple, however, the writer has somehow managed to treat an important problem in an unimportant way. Perhaps this effect is heightened by such florid sentences as this: "The child must be allowed to choose his own track and scale his own peak of the mountain of God!"

AGNES DELIMA

Industry's Place in the School

INDUSTRIAL ARTS AND PREVOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN INTERMEDIATE AND JUNIOR-HIGH SCHOOLS, *by A. H. Edgerton. Bruce Publishing Co., Milwaukee, Wis.* 104 *pp. Price* 80c *postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS BOOK sets forth data gathered in an investigation of the industrial activities of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in 379 intermediate and junior-high schools in twenty-one states. Teachers and supervisors contribute detailed studies of successfully tried courses and projects which give to the book the convincing quality of an "experience meeting."

The author admits that this investigation, as well as the majority of recent school surveys, makes it evident that industrial education is still too largely determined by traditional practices, and urges that in the future it should be based more upon established facts. But we find little in his book to suggest the crying need of facts indicating the extent to which the automatic machine has destroyed the need for industrial skill today. Two statements make one hopeful that schoolmen are becoming cognizant of these facts.

The most urgent need of boys from twelve to fifteen years of age is not so much for a high degree of manipulative skill in trade operation as it is for reliable information with which to judge the industries.

A large majority of the schools report that they are making no special attempt to emphasize proficiency in specific occupations as low as the seventh and eighth grades, because of their conviction that the industries offer little to boys under sixteen years of age.

Perhaps it is not too much to hope that they will soon begin to question what industry has to offer to older boys.

ETHEL KAWIN

Wanted: A Pen of Fire

CRUCIBLES OF CRIME, *by Joseph F. Fishman. Cosmopolis Press. 299 pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. FISHMAN has had an experience as unique as that of Robert E. Peary or Sinbad the Sailor. For years he has been the only living person whose duties took him officially into county jails throughout the United States; he has been federal inspector of these places of detention for short term offenders and persons awaiting trial. Other persons might go into the jails of a single state; Mr. Fishman has drawn back before reeking odors in Massachusetts and scraped lice off jail walls in Texas. He has stood in front of cells in Albany that were so dark that the man at the other end, eight feet away, was invisible; here, as he has learned, human beings spend months continuously. He has seen sodden rounders sleeping in small hammocks in jail cells, nestling against fresh-faced young boys whose only offense was that they had run away from home. He has seen shouting, fighting, screaming men cooped up in hot, steel-plated tanks without a breath of fresh air to cool their heated spirits. He has taken a cot out of a cell, submerged it in water and counted three hundred bedbugs crawling to the surface as the cot sank below depths. He has seen the welts on men's bodies raised by heavy clubs, wielded on those whom triple locks and iron bars kept closely confined. He has seen people with every known infectious disease mingling promiscuously with people who were without disease. He has seen men whose innocence was later proved, who were never criminal in any way, kept for months under such conditions as these with others who have been degenerates from birth.

His soul has revolted. He has put what he has seen into a book. He could stand it no longer; no longer could he endure the indifference of governmental inertia or the impotence of a federal inspector. The writer of this review, who as a former member of the Survey staff has himself investigated county jails, has run across Mr. Fishman's trail. He has heard people say: "That government guy was here last week. Wonder what miracles he'll work." Mr. Fishman could work no miracles. So he has decided to tell the facts to the world.

The facts that he tells are not over-stated. Mr. Fishman gives a very fair and accurate idea of what county jails are like. The book is not pleasant reading, but neither is a true account of a bloody battle-scene. Mr. Fishman gives little of the setting of jails in our penological system. He is not a criminologist; he has little grasp, apparently, of the psychological principles underlying the treatment of offenders. For that reason his efforts at constructive suggestions are not very valuable. But this is unnecessary to a realization of what county jails are like. The only requisite for that is a pair of good eyes.

The publishers evidently expect the book to be a sensation. They have given it a jacket calculated to attract ghouls and desecrators of dead bodies. Yet the jacket is a veracious symbol of the atmosphere of county jails. Ghouls and body-robbers might well turn their attention to county jails; they will find much congenial material in the practices of these nefarious places.

But the book will not be a sensation. It will not even be widely read. Its style is too uninspired and its method too purely descriptive. The jails of the United States are not to be reformed, in the opinion of the reviewer, by description, no matter how realistic and convincing. The indignation of the American people is not easily

(*Continued on page* 643)

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COMMUNICATIONS

Jurisdiction or Judicial Power

To the Editor: In an article entitled Our Self-Amending Constitution in your issue of August 1, the Rev. John A. Ryan discusses the exercise of judicial power by the Supreme Court of the United States, and states his objection thereto on the basis of results with which he is displeased. He presents the oft-suggested remedy by the passage of a statute requiring the concurrence of seven judges in order to give validity to a judgment refusing to enforce a statute. The article is illustrative of the failure of many of those who criticize the court's exercise of judicial power to understand the nature of judicial power.

The constitution was agreed to and accepted in the first instance upon the clear understanding, expressed in the constitution itself and the first ten amendments thereto, that the powers of the federal government were only those specifically granted to it; that there were certain powers of government which should thereafter never be exercised by the states; and that there were certain rights inherent in the individual citizen which should never be abridged by the federal government. Subsequently—in 1868—the constitution was amended to provide that those individual rights should never be abridged by any state.

It was not declared that the prohibited powers might nevertheless be exercised in furtherance of a worthy purpose. The very aim of the constitution was to destroy the possibility that the powers of government might ebb and flow according to the purposes of legislatures, public office-holders, and public clamor. It was intended to place certain rights beyond the reach of legislative interference. If the wisdom of this age dictates that the rights of individuals heretofore recognized as inherent, should be curtailed or expanded, or the powers of the government increased or decreased, a way to accomplish it is pointed out in the constitution, *and all other ways are prohibited.*

The question of whether an individual's or a state's inherent or reserved right is abridged by the enforcement of legislative enactment is a question of conflict of laws. Its solution can be accomplished only by the exercise of judicial power. The constitution vests "the judicial power of the United States in the one Supreme Court, and such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish."

"The judicial power" means *all* judicial power which the United States has. Its exercise is left unqualified save in cases of treason and by the constitutional direction that "This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance hereof; and all treaties . . . shall be the supreme Law of the Land." In the exercise of this power therefore, the court is wholly independent of Congress.

Dr. Ryan proposes that this power might be interfered with by a statute requiring a seven-ninths vote to sustain a judgment refusing to enforce a statute, however clearly it might appear to the majority of the court that the statute was not made *in pursuance of* the constitution, but in violation of it. He contends that there is authority for this change in the power of Congress to control the appellate jurisdiction of the court. But *jurisdiction* and *judicial power* are wholly distinct. Jurisdiction deals with the power to undertake consideration of a judicial question. Over that Congress is given certain control. The exercise of judicial power, however, once jurisdiction is taken, is complete in the court exercising the power and may not be limited by legislation. This point has been often decided, especially in cases arising under the power to try and convict for contempt of court. The notion therefore that Congress can by statute prescribe any limitations upon the court in arriving at a judgment is wholly at variance with the grant of judicial power by the constitution of the court.

Dr. Ryan displays in other passages his failure to understand our constitutional system and its operation. He says, "so far as the 'due process' clauses are concerned, the court's assumption of legislative power is quite recent, occurring within the last half century." The "due process" most frequently brought in question is in the Fourteenth Amendment which did not enter the constitution until 1868. Its application in specific cases is not the exercise of legislative power. It is the exercise of the power to determine, in cases arising "in law and equity," a conflict of laws,—whether a right granted by the constitution is being respected or not by the enforcement of a particular statute. If the court comes to the conclusion that it is not, it merely declines to enforce the statute. There could be no purer exercise of judicial power.

Murray T. Quigg

New York

A Way to World Team-Work

To the Editor: Costs of living may be multiplied—tragedies baffling imagination may be accomplished—by war. And oppositely, not only can these vast evils be avoided, but commensurate positive benefits can be achieved, if nations and classes, instead of pulling apart for destruction, will pull together for production. Living costs may be divided—progress unprecedented can be won—by world team-work.

And to cooperation a powerful motive of general application is friendship. Friendship is one of our brightest revelations of God. For friends even criminals have sacrificed life itself. Nations and classes have the might of organized hundreds of millions both for evil and for good. A way to unequalled happiness for all is the formation of strong national and class friendships.

The firmest attachments can be cultivated only by prolonged intimacy in plastic youth. Peoples and classes, then, may become the most loyal friends solely through their *youthful representatives chumming for years* in international universities for the fraternizing of future world leaders. Such institutions of cosmopolitan sociability are a scientific means to national and class friendships and team-work—to unapproached prosperity for all.

One of the possible modes of carrying out the proposal would be for a dominant half-dozen of the great powers to found a national university apiece. Every institution would tri-annually train, say two thousand government-endowed prospective statesmen, half from the home country and the other thousand from the five other nations, two hundred from each. In forty-five years alumni of forty or over would number 120,000, less the necessary deduction for deaths. Even at an average of $2500 per international scholarship, a cosmopolitan university endowed with two thousand of them could easily be managed for $15,000,000 a year.

Can potential leaders be assembled by the government scholarships urged? Happily this crucial query has been satisfactorily answered by the working of the Rhodes scholarships. Although the oldest Rhodes scholars are but forty, even now forty-two of them are in "Who's Who." Even several years ago, moreover, when statistics were compiled, nine were college presidents or deans and about one hundred were authors of books or articles. One, furthermore, is United States Commissioner of Education. And the first full success of these scholarships cannot appear until twenty-five years hence—until hundreds of Rhodes scholars shall have passed fifty. And as the Rhodes scholarships began under serious handicaps, their surprising first success is likely in time to be multiplied. Government scholarships, again, besides being one hundred times as numerous, will have opportunities and attractions unapproachable by any private foundation. Government beneficiaries will enjoy the preference of the governments and peoples endowing them. Are not, then, cosmopolitan scholarships practically certain to draw and fraternize representatives influential enough, when $35,000,000 apiece is the price of battleships, to be many times over (*Continued on page* 645)

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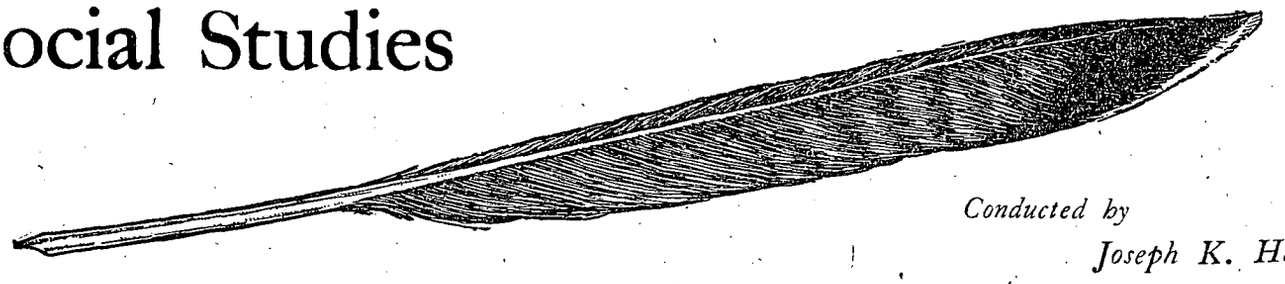
Social Studies



Conducted by

Joseph K. Hart

Two Theories of Community

A NEWSPAPER in one of our large cities holds two quite distinct theories as to the nature of the city in which it is published, and prints each of these theories, more or less regularly, to jusify its own editorial conduct. When it wants to block a reform movement it broadcasts one of the theories; and when it wants to appear to be liberal it prints the other. No one knows, least of all the editor, perhaps, whether the paper is aware of this double-dealing: we are all engaged in it, more or less. But the example of this particular paper will help to point our moral and adorn this tale.

One of these theories as to the nature of the city is to the effect that any city, or any community, is "made up of the people who live in it." The argument runs somewhat as follows: Since any community is made up of the people who live in it, any community can have anything—in the way of government, prosperity, culture, or morality—that it wants to have. The people can decide what they want and they can have it. If they do not have the things reformers demand, that is proof that they do not want those things. The community is made and unmade and remade by the people who live in it. They have what they want and they do not have what they do not want.

It is a plausible theory. Many people believe it, naively. But the editor of the newspaper in question does not believe it. At least, not every day. For alternately, he gives vent to a second theory, on occasions when something has gone wrong in his plans.

Under such circumstances he says in effect: There are three or four men in this town who can get together in a back room, down street, make up their minds as to what shall be done in the city, select the candidates for public office and lay down the rules of civic procedure; and when they have made up their minds, the city has made up its mind: it always does what it is told to do. To all effects, those three or four men make up the whole of this city; the rest of us are pawns, nobodies, ninnies!

Taken by and large, this theory, while not nearly so plausible as the other, seems very much nearer to the facts. A city, or a community, is not made up of the people who live in it: it is made up of the few who control it. The rest of its population are merely residents in it, not members of it!

Nor is it enough for someone to say: "Well, the people could make up the community if they wanted to do so. The present situation is due to their own inertia, their laziness and lack of interest!"

This too is a plausible explanation of a complex situation; but it happens not to be any nearer the truth than the theory it attempts to justify. The people, on the whole, cannot escape from the control of the few and take charge of their city or their community: the community, that is, the past, is too strong for them!

For we must see that the city or the community was, in most instances, in existence long before any of the people who now live in it was born. The community, or the city, is a great framework of tradition, custom, habit, legend, institutional forms and old folkways which date from a more or less hoary antiquity, even in America; and which insist upon dominating the individual, molding his whole habit of life and thought and controlling him in the interest of the *status quo*. He can submit—or he can be broken on the wheel of custom!

If he submits, and most of us do, he more or less consciously consents to be ruled by the "three or four men who get together down street in a back room." Those men control the city and the occasionally rebellious individual, because they accept without question the ancient framework of custom and the folkways: the city is not, for these three or four, made up of the people who live in it; it is made up of certain old traditions, certain ancient political prerogatives, certain factors of social prestige, certain economic privileges. These ancient elements take on the quality of being sacred; or, if not sacred, they are very desirable—to those who possess them. Any one who questions these ancient privileges and prerogatives can be labelled any desirable degree of a traitor or agitator. All who accept the existence of these ancient privileges and controls can be called good citizens. As a convenient fiction, by means of which the minds of the masses of men can be lulled into quiescence, the doctrine that the community is made up of all who live in it, and that the people have decreed all these things, can be set up and preached.

But these old custom and habit controls—these drifts of the folkways and the institutional attitudes of mind—have come out of all the past and they are stronger than the wills of men. We are born into pre-existent custom and habit; into already existent cities and communities. We who live in these cities and communities, today, are like transients in a hotel: we can accept the rules of the management, or we can find other accommodations. If we rebel and "start something" we have little chance of ever achieving any share in the control: those who accept conditions and "play the game" sooner or later take over all positions of responsibility. But even they become managers because they give over any wills of their own that they might have had and accept, without question, the controls of the past: they become the "stewards of a great tradition."

All the institutions and influences of the community are devoted to the task of making us conform: the school identifies "taking on knowledge" with "developing intelligence." The church recommends "the faith once delivered unto the saints." The state stands upon the doctrines of "the founding fathers." Even industry, which occasionally accepts a new process in its mechanical departments, has little if any use for new processes in its dealings with men. We revel in old custom and habit: we are afraid of intelligence!

The theory that the people who live in a community make it up has little basis in fact. On the contrary, the community makes us up. It molds us to its customs; it binds us to an acceptance of its ancient folkways. It turns us into bundles of habit. It seduces away whatever minds we might have had and makes us believe that subordination to existing conditions is a true intelligence and obedience to the customs of the past the only true morality. Our leaders love to have it so; and we reconcile ourselves to these conditions with a theory!

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Our Social Institutions
A Course for High Schools

(In this column, through this school year, will appear a series of studies for social science classes in high schools. The studies will consider the nature and functions of our various social institutions, and will direct the minds of the students to a study of the institutions of their own communities. The studies will be published on this page throughout the school year.—THE EDITOR.)

I. Institutions and Institutions

The term "institution" is used in a variety of confusing ways. It may refer to a particular object, a building, such as a jail or a home for the feeble-minded or a bank; it may refer to a great social instrumentality, like government or industry; or it may refer to almost any sort of social organization between these two extremes. A bank will advertise itself as "a sound, conservative institution." A writer on social questions will say: "The state is one of our major social institutions." When asked to name "all the institutions," the sociologist is likely to say, "Well, we have five major institutions, the home, the state, the church, industry and the school." Others, equally intelligent, however, may insist that there are other "major" institutions. What might they be? There is a good deal of confusion with respect to this question. We shall explore some of this confusion in the course of these studies. Confusion indicates a field for thinking and study. There is plenty of room for study in this field of our social living.

1. What Is an Institution?

When such seemingly unlike objects as a bank and "government" are called by the same term, there may be some confusion in the use of the term, but there is evidence also that the two objects have something in common. What can a bank and "government" have in common? A church is an institution; so is "industry": what can these two have in common, that they should both be called "institutions"? If the factor that these "institutions" have in common can be found, a clue may be secured as to the reason why this word has such varied applications and meanings.

2. Why Do We Have Institutions?

One characteristic of all "institutions" is this, that they bring people together—for some more or less obvious purpose. But why should people get together? Do they want to get together? Why should not people do things separately? Is not an individual able to do everything alone? Is not "getting together" evidence of weakness? Or is it evidence of strength? In what ways do people get together? For what purposes? In what numbers? On what occasions? What do they accomplish by this sort of getting together? Do all people "get together" on all such occasions? Do all people "belong" to all institutions? How is membership determined? Are institutions desirable in a community? All institutions? Does every one belong to some institution? To more than one? Do people ever leave an institution? Why? Should they ever? Why?

References:

C. A. Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems. American Book Co.

James H. Tufts, The Real Business of Living. Henry Holt.

The books mentioned on this page may be obtained through The Survey Book Department.

Questions on Current Issues

Is Knowledge Dangerous?

As indicated elsewhere in this issue the world is witnessing a real revolt against knowledge. Not alone in the back country districts is this revolt apparent, however; it may be seen in any city, and it can be found on every college and university campus. The so-called "humanists" are in revolt against the "sciences"; the "natural" sciences are in revolt against the so-called "social" sciences; conservative psychology is in revolt against psycho-analysis; there seem to be very few people in the world, today, who are not in revolt against some one else's knowledge. When it was suggested to the geologist that he should have the water from a certain spring investigated before he drank it, he replied: "I drank water from springs before bacteriology was invented!"

1. The Fear of Knowledge.

What is it that gives to knowledge its fear-inspiring quality? Is all knowledge fear-inspiring? Is "old" knowledge fear-inspiring? What makes "new" knowledge so fearsome? Was "old" knowledge always old? Did our present "old" knowledge, e. g., the knowledge that the earth is round, ever inspire any one with fear? When did it cease to inspire this fear? Why did it cease? Will the new knowledge that now makes people fearful ever come to seem safe and sane? Will that be the end of our fearfulness, or shall we then be face to face with other "new" knowledge that will still be inspiring us with fear? Should we put an end to the search for new knowledge?

2. The Fear of the Unknown.

How much of the earth has been explored? How much of the universe? Have explorers of the unknown been punished for their temerity? Why have we been afraid of the unknown and unexplored areas? Has this fear been based on religion? On morality? On economic motives? How has the race treated its explorers? How are explorers regarded today? What would have been the extent of civilization, today, if the motto of all explorers had been "Safety first?" What shall be done with the explorer in the realms of knowledge and intelligence?

3. The Fear of the Future.

What part of the history of the race has been enacted, so far? How much longer is the race to go on making history? Is the future to be regarded as a terror-filled affair? Superstitions have always filled the future with portents and catastrophes: have these ever been realized as the future came on and became the present? To what extent have we escaped those old superstitious fears of the future? Is there any such thing as "exploration of the future?" Can the scientist forecast the future? Is speculation as to the future desirable? Is there any escape from such speculation? Is such speculation dependable? Shall humanity give over its future to fear and chance?

4. The Fear of Life.

The human race has, in the past, been more or less controlled by its fears: fear of knowledge, fear of the unknown, fear of the future, fear of life. Part of this has been an affectation—what the psychologists call a "defence-mechanism." How much of all these fears exists in the average individual, today? In the institutions of today? In the social life? In public opinion? Is there no escape from these fears?

Reference:

The Revolt Against Knowledge, page 631.

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

JOGGING through Normandy and Brittany, Mrs. Edith Shatto King, lately executive secretary of the American Association of Social Workers, has found time to write The Survey her impressions of the conference of L'Association Pro Gallia—which seems to have been a charming variation on the usual pattern of social work conferences all-too-familiar in the United States.

The scene was the Chateau d'Argeronne at La Haye-Malherbe, in the most beautiful part of Normandy, not far from Rouen—dating from 1650, untouched by modern innovations, set in an old park with high walls topped by grass and clusters of yellow snapdragon. This small paradise Mlle. de Montmort, the owner—and incidentally founder of the district nursing service in the villages of France and of the French Girl Guides—devotes each summer to a succession of small, informal conferences. She is assisted by Mlle. Diemer, director of the Ecole d'Action Sociale Pro Gallia, who, one minute, may be leading the discussion on the training of social workers, and the next, may be leading all the guests to an attack on a field of hay in the park that must be saved before a storm bursts.

Personnel workers, health workers, the Y. W. C. A., the French settlements, the Girl Guides, women from the Browning Settlement in South London, where Mlle. de Montmort was once head-worker, workers from the devastated regions, all these come in turn to rest and talk at the chateau.

The Pro Gallia conference in July brought together about fifty social workers from France, Belgium, Switzerland and the United States—the Americans being Mrs. Wadsworth, from a Methodist Church memorial center at Chateau Thierry, Miss Coolidge of Boston, representing the International Federation of Settlements, and Mrs. King. For a week they talked of varied organization and training problems: settlements, child welfare, social legislation, industrial relations. There was plenty of time for discussion; the leader of the day sought criticism, questions and exchange of opinion—and got them all in an eager and thorough fashion.

The most heated discussion of the week was over the question of union vs. non-union influence in certain factory and social-industrial experiments. The question of works-councils as against trade unions brought out a sharp difference of opinion between the more radical and more conservative members of the group. M. l'Abbé Viollet brought from Washington his impressions of the National Conference, and continued his discussion of the relation between the church and social work.

Pro Gallia, an association of French social workers, seeks to foster the traditional culture of France and at the same time to transplant institutions and ideas of foreign origin which are adapted to French soil. At its yearly conference American social workers visiting in France are always welcome.

ARTHUR J. STRAWSON, field secretary of the National Tuberculosis Association, is making a survey of the public health work of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute throughout Cook County.

CABLE ADVICES from Jane Addams and her fellow-travelers bring the reassuring news that they had left Japan a week before the calamitous earthquake.

TO THE RESCUE: William H. Pear of the Boston Provident Association writes to complain of the shoptalk in August that represented Uncle Alec as a "50 per cent volunteer" for the first year of his service as secretary of the Indiana Council of Social Agencies. "I object to 'Uncle Alec' being termed 50 per cent at anything," says Mr. Pear. "Isn't he rather going to be a 100 per cent volunteer for six months and a 100 per cent paid officer the rest of the year!"

INDIANAPOLIS may be a bad place for the insane, as Paul Benjamin suggests on another page. But it is applying the sanest counsel it can get to the handling of its transportation. J. Rowland Bibbins, who has studied transportation problems in twenty cities and is now developing plans for Detroit and Montreal, has been retained to advise the transportation committee of the Indianapolis Planning Commission.

FOLLOWING the course of Maginnity in San Francisco and other chamber of commerce workers who have made their contact with social work through local charity endorsement bureaus, Pierce Atwater has gone from the civic secretaryship of the Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association to become executive secretary of the Wichita Council of Social Agencies and the community chest which it includes.

IN APRIL we shoptalked about the president of an ice company in Los Angeles who sent out a circular letter asking funds to build a free orthopedic hospital, and enclosed as bait a fresh green dollar bill with each appeal, and about the Los Angeles physician who countered with a suggestion for a free ice campaign. It is only fair to tell the other side of the story. The Mailbag, a journal of direct-mail advertising, records the fact that the thousand dollar bills sown in the first campaign and the hundred thousand which were later circulated have borne fruit in a net inflow of over $70,000 for the hospital which the ice-president wanted to help. As the direct-mail editor puts it: "Calkins, by getting away from the cut-and-dried, made a profit of seventy thousand dollars by selling one of the hardest-to-market commodities known to mankind: support of a charitable institution."

MANY SETTLEMENT and other social workers at Chicago, Cleveland, Milwaukee, and at the University of Illinois will deeply regret to learn of the recent death of their fellow-worker Mrs. Sarah Burke Carr. For several years she was the house-mother of the Chicago Commons household, helping it efficiently through the trying years of its transition in leaving the old Union Street house and in re-establishing its household life and neighborhood work at the new building which was erected and occupied in 1900. She successfully served Hiram House and Alta House in Cleveland, and the University of Chicago Settlement. Previously she had been one of the founders of the Young Women's Christian Association in Milwaukee and subsequently was the head of Osborne Hall, the Episcopal Church Dormitory at the University of Illinois. Entering settlement service somewhat late in life, the maturity of her judgment, her social intelligence and her skill in handicrafts, as well as in the management of household affairs, combined to qualify her highly for residential and neighborhood work.

THERE ARE some people who just naturally coordinate social work in their own individual persons. Such is Dr. James A. Britton, who for years has been closely associated with the work of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute and has recently been appointed one of the three members of the board of directors of the Municipal Tuberculosis Sanitarium of Chicago, and who thus forms a most desirable link between the tuberculosis work of the municipality and that of the institute. In the course of his public health work Dr. Britton has served Hull House, the United Charities of Chicago, the International Harvester Company, and the United States Army.

JAMES A. TOBEY, who has been covering the Washington end of the National Health Council, and preparing an admirable digest of health legislation, comes to New York to become administrative secretary of the Council at headquarters. He succeeds Walter Clarke, who has resigned to study medicine in Belgium. Mr. Tobey has been a city health officer, representative of the New Jersey Department of Health, scientific assistant with the United States Public Health Service, and an officer in the U. S. Army Sanitary Corps.

THE TYLER MAGAZINE, a house organ out of the ordinary published by William Feather for the W. S. Tyler Company, Cleveland, has this to say about Lewis Hine's work portraits, with which readers of Survey Graphic are familiar.

"A photographer in New York by the name of Lewis W. Hine is making a distinct contribution to the industry and art of the country.

"Mr. Hine takes pictures of workmen—on the job. They are bold, sincere, honest pictures of men and women at their daily tasks. In his prints the man and the machine are a unit.

"I have never seen better art than Hine gets into his pictures. After looking at them you don't have to spin any idle and pulpy phrases about the 'dignity of labor.' The dignity pours itself out, whether it be a photograph of a miner, a locomotive engineer, or a truckman.

"Reproductions of his photographs have been used extensively in the Survey Graphic, which is where my attention was first attracted to this man."

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Book Reviews

(*Continued from page* 638)

aroused that way. It seems as if in this instance what is wanted is a Dickens or an H. G. Wells.

What is wanted is an imaginative story-teller, some one with the fine gift of understanding the effect of experience on people's minds and hearts, who can strip away the walls from all the foul rottenness and wretched brutality that jails foster, and lay open to the gaze of the world the stupid futility of these "crucibles of crime" and their toll of human misery. When such a hand really essays the task, the days of our disgraceful county jails may be numbered.

WINTHROP D. LANE

Sidelights on the New Italy

UNDERSTANDING ITALY, *by Clayton Sedgwick Cooper. Century Co. 306 pp. Illustrated. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
GUILDS AND COOPERATIVES IN ITALY, *by Odon Por.* Introduction by A. E. Appendix by G. D. H. Cole. *Labour Publishing Co., Ltd., London. 197 pp. Price $1.20 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. COOPER is primarily interested in business opportunities for Americans abroad but manages to weave into his stories of alluring resources and possibilities of development a great deal of romance and interpretation of the political, economical and social attitudes and backgrounds of the peoples described. His book on Italy takes a favorable view of Fascismo, though he does not gush over the achievements of Mussolini as so many American business men recently returned from Italy have done. In speaking of Italy as "the birthplace of spiritual revivals throughout the centuries" he states a truth that will not be denied even by those who look upon the present regime in that country as opportunist and capricious.

The side of Italian life discussed by Odon Por is the most inspiring at the present time; the cooperative movement has not only shown its vitality under the most diverse forms of government, but it is continually developing new and promising offshoots. Socialists and nationalists, Catholics and atheists are participating in the task of transforming Italy into a cooperative commonwealth. D'Annunzio and the most advanced of radicals have for their ultimate goal a guild organization of society. Mussolini has shocked his middle-class supporters by making friends with the leaders of the trade-union and guild movements and encouraging them to develop what seems to him organization in line with the national genius of the Italian people. The book under review is not, perhaps, as complete in descriptive detail as students of the cooperative movement would desire; but it does interestingly and stimulatingly show the great resemblance in the thought of the guild and cooperative philosophers throughout Europe.

THE MEANING OF CHILD LABOR, *by Raymond G. Fuller. National Social Science Series. A. C. McClurg & Co. 161 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A concise, readable statement of the status of child labor reform in this country; the need for it and the methods by which it is being accomplished. Particular stress is laid on the *economic* waste of putting children to work. Mr. Fuller was formerly director of research and publicity of the National Child Labor Committee.

THE TOWNER-STERLING BILL, *Compiled by Lamar T. Beman. H. W. Wilson Co. 102 pp. Paper. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
CABINET FORM OF GOVERNMENT, *compiled by Dorman J. Ettrude. H. W. Wilson Co. 111 pp. Paper. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

Two more volumes in The Reference Shelf series, an extremely useful compendium of articles, briefs, bibliographies, debates and study outlines on timely subjects for public discussion.

THE OUTLINES OF SOCIOLOGY, *by Edward Alsworth Ross. Century Co. 474 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

This abridged version of Professor Ross's Principles of Sociology is edited for use in the class-room. In the preface he describes his method of teaching which, though it may be too cut and dried to be practicable everywhere, offers valuable

There are no short cuts to proficiency in social work. Time taken for technical training will yield compoundly in a life of wider usefulness. The post-war growth of the country's schools of social work bespeaks the growing demand on the part of social executives for especially equipped staffs. Entering the New York School of Social Work, you may map out your course of studies for future service in a chosen field. And while here, you may be brought into touch with the definite position through which you will enter upon your life's work. The Fall Quarter starts October first.

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A Way to World Team-Work

(*Continued from page* 639)

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Credit where Credit Is Due

TO THE EDITOR: One would scarcely be mortal not to feel gratified as the recipient of one of the Roosevelt gold medals, awarded recently by the Roosevelt Memorial Association, for the promotion of social welfare service rendered through a long and active life; its value being greatly enhanced through coming from the hand of the President of the United States.

But such satisfactions have their draw-backs; in my case these have consisted in the overestimation of my philanthropic achievements made by overzealous admirers, who have not hesitated to send to the public press accounts of various philanthropic achievements, which they believed to have been accomplished by me, without taking the trouble to verify their statements. In this way, misrepresentations have been made. You can well imagine what an annoyance this has been to me. Will you be kind enough to give me the opportunity of correcting through your columns the most flagrant of these misstatements? I refer to the one in which I am cited as having been the organizer of the women's division of the work of that commission. There never was a women's division of the United States Sanitary Commission. The membership of the commission was composed of men and women residing in all parts of the country. Its founder was the Rev. Henry W. Bellows, D.D., minister of All Souls' Unitarian Church in New York City, an eminent preacher and orator.

My own part in this great work was simply that of an active member of the New York Branch of the United States Sanitary Commission, my duties being those of the organization of contributing societies, publicity and correspondence. This is the work to which I gave my days and nights for four years, and in which was centered the most interesting and exciting period of my life.

LOUISA LEE SCHUYLER

New York

"Respectable Nonentities"

TO THE EDITOR: If David H. Pierce may secure publicity in The Survey by an article under the title appearing above, I wonder if a superintendent may be permitted a few observations, a plain superintendent who has been a plainer high school principal and once perhaps the plainest high school teacher.

Mr. Pierce entered teaching through chance and, though he loves it, realizes after five years that he cannot make it a life work. To begin with, it is possible that he has got into the wrong line, but, on the other hand, does he know that other lines would be more endurable for him? We have so little opportunity to really acquaint ourselves with the disadvantages of many vocations. The advantages are always appealing to the novice. The other job looks pleasanter and easier.

"A high school teacher cannot grow intellectually to the limit of his inborn capacities." Well, who can? Is there any position in which one can talk as he pleases or do as he pleases, and if there were, would one then develop to the limit of his inborn capacities? Why must we remain timid just because society has not yet accepted our values in athletics, for instance? Why should we admit that we are *unskilled* laborers, particularly those of us who have taught more than five years?

Mr. Pierce does not say that we are privately ridiculed more than other people, but he implies it. Does he know this? Suppose I make the assertion that, if we are privately ridiculed, it is because of certain individual characteristics, real or supposed, rather than because we are teachers.

He suggests that we are failures because we are not materially minded. It is true that there are many of us who think more of other things than we do of the money, and there

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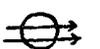

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AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION (formerly American Child Hygiene Association and Child Health Organization of America)—Headquarters, 532 17th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Administrative Offices, 370 7th Ave., New York. Herbert Hoover, pres.; L. Emmett Holt, M.D.; Livingston Farrand, M.D.; Thomas D. Wood, M.D.; 1st, 2nd, 3rd vice-presidents, respectively; Corcoran Thom, treas.; Philip Van Ingen, M.D., sec'y. To promote health among children from conception to maturity—this to be accomplished through cooperation with parents, doctors, nurses, teachers, and other health workers; by dissemination of scientific information and teaching methods in schools, through conferences, addresses, pamphlets, publicity material, and a monthly magazine, "Mother and Child."

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National Catholic Service School for Women, 2400 Nineteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y: 1 East 104th Street, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration; children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10. $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

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may be some of us who could make more money in other lines than we do in teaching, but I have not yet seen proofs of it.

Mr. Pierce speaks of our having to teach subjects in which we have not specialized. People in other vocations are doing this all the time and becoming specialists in lines in which they did not prepare. This wastefulness could be avoided in an industrial system which had been perfectly organized. Such has not yet happened in many businesses, and certainly not in the teaching business. It is a hopeful sign to me that organization, standards, specialization, initiative, and other desirable features have advanced tremendously.

The whole reference to teachers' agencies, if it proved anything to me, would indicate that some agencies at least are not the right medium for getting the position and the teacher together. I doubt if the author needs to use an agency to secure a position. The rest of the article is to my mind in similar vein. For instance, "Physicians, lawyers and engineers do not permit the most conservative elements to dictate their social life. Teachers do." My observation would lead me to say that he would be stating the truth more accurately if he would say that some physicians, lawyers and teachers permit the most conservative elements to dictate their social life. Others do not. The same may be said of their political life. Unfortunately, it is true that there are places, and many of them, where the teachers' lot is not ideal and some where it is not even desirable, but there are many other communities where the teacher is respected, treated with consideration, and fairly reasonably paid. Standardized pay of teachers will never be as high as some of the superior ones could secure in other fields. On the other hand, it is likely to be higher than many of them could hope to win outside of teaching. Positions that are held by large groups under government, state or city will tend to have standardized pay. Whether the teacher's position is a desirable one, or not, one thing that will contribute to making it more desirable would be to have those who are dissatisfied with it go into other desirable things that are waiting. If this produced a scarcity of teachers, then the rewards for the individual would increase, and if it produced a higher percentage of teachers who are reasonably contented with their lot and prospects, that contentment and satisfaction might be contagious enough so that the respect for teachers would be raised.

Part of Mr. Pierce's program should be realized, but I wish to submit that security of tenure is not desirable either for the public or for the teacher. Every attempt to take teachers out of the experiences of other human beings and to make them into a group by themselves, particularly a protected group, will tend to produce and continue the situation of which Mr. Pierce complains. Any human being is liable to become careless, easy, non-progressive, independent or incompatible as soon as he is secure in a position for life. On the other hand, no teacher should be removed from her position without just cause, and "a vital organization of teachers is absolutely essential" for this and other reasons. Neither should teachers, of course, be molded to the "superintendent's type." Superintendent and teachers should mold each other, and, if either is not malleable, he is not useful.

"Intelligent placement is a third requisite." No one can dispute this, and I would agree with Mr. Pierce that we still have much to do in this respect.

Teaching *is* becoming professional. Most of the changes, perhaps all that Mr. Pierce mentions, may be expected and have, in fact, arrived in many places.

One more item should be added to his program, and that is patience. Successful reformers are equipped with this desirable quality. There are two good reasons why this is so. First, the public cannot enjoy and follow the special program of the reformer until it can become sufficiently familiar with it to understand it and appreciate it. Second, occasionally the reformer is slightly wrong, and then the delay furnished by the public is a safety device.

May I suggest that this is the best world that we know intimately, and our vocation has no more drawbacks than any other which we know as well. A few of us might be able to jump from the frying pan into milk and honey, but most of us would jump into the fire if we jumped at all.

T. J. KNAPP

Highland Park, Michigan

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ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: Portland, October 1. Secretary, Frank Morrison, American Federation of Labor Building, Washington.

NATIONAL SAFETY CONGRESS: Buffalo, October 1-5. Managing Director, W. H. Cameron, National Safety Council, 168 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago.

WORLD'S DAIRY CONGRESS: Washington, October 2-3, Philadelphia, October 4, Syracuse, in co-operation with seventeenth annual National Dairy Exposition October 5-10. Under auspices of World's Dairy Congress Assn., 426 Star Building, Washington.

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INDIANA STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Evansville, October 5-6. President, Miss Ina M. Gaskill, Department of Public Health Nursing, 224 State House, Indianapolis.

BOSTON HEALTH SHOW: Boston, October 6-13. Commissioner of Health, Dr. Francis X. Mahoney, Boston.

RECREATION CONGRESS: Springfield, Ill., October 8-12. Secretary, T. E. Rivers, Playground and Recreation Assn. of America, 315 Fourth Ave., New York.

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OHIO STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Lima, October 16-19. Executive Secretary, Howard R. Knight, Ohio Institute for Public Efficiency, Ontario Bldg., Columbus.

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AMERICAN BIRTH CONTROL LEAGUE: Middle Western States Conference. Chicago, Hotel Drake, October 29-31. Secretary, Miss Pauline Carvel Daniel, Hotel Drake, Chicago.

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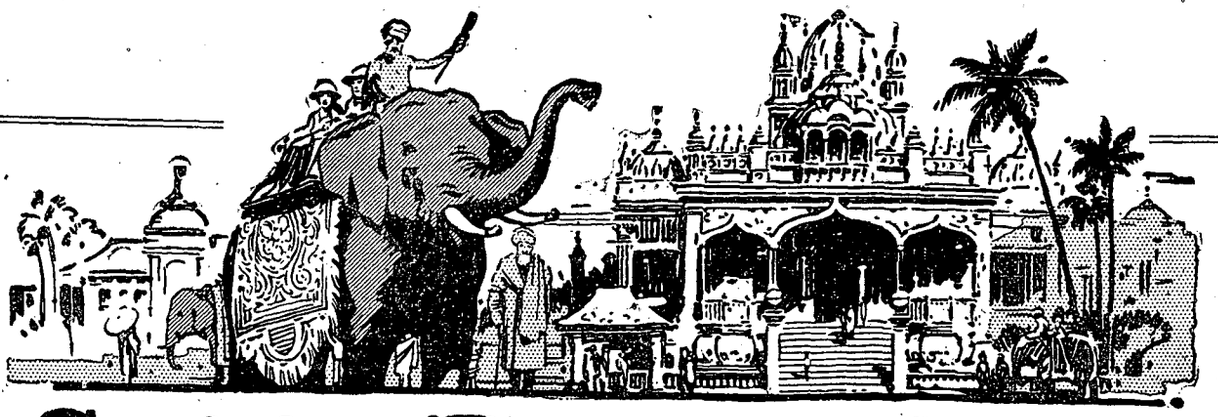

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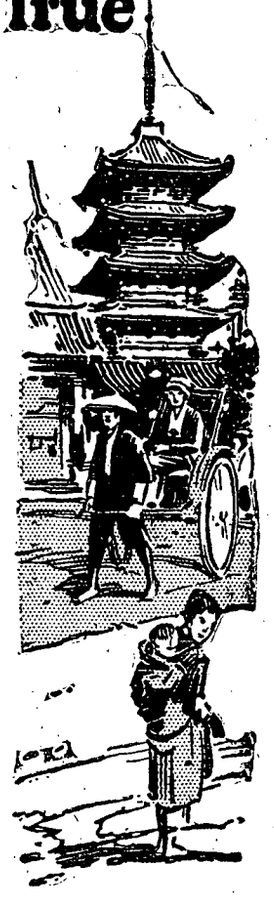

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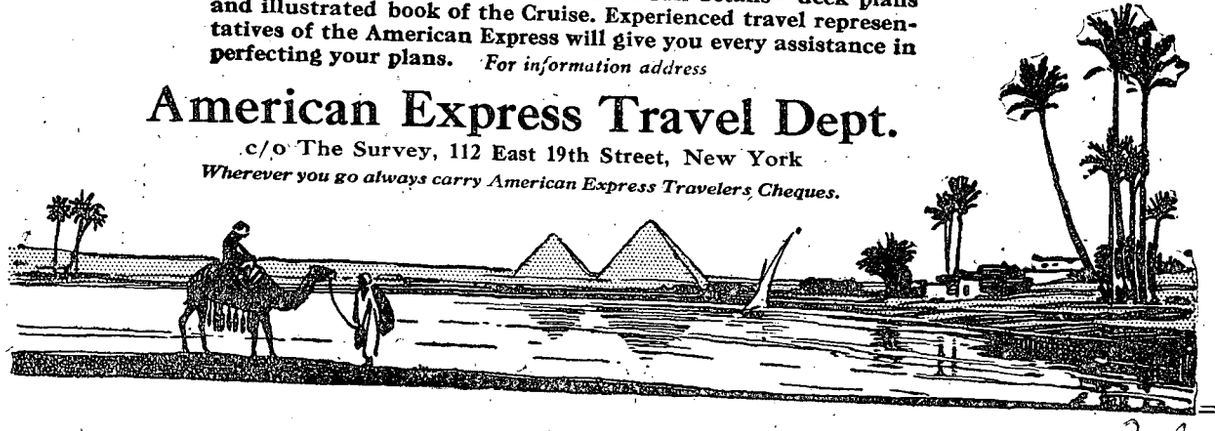

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